



**DELHI UNIVERSITY
LIBRARY**

DELHI UNIVERSITY LIBRARY

Cl. No. *Y173P722 : (7): 9* 48

Ac. No. *124005* Date of release for loan

This book should be returned on or before the date last stamped below. An overdue charge of 5 Paise will be collected for each day the book is kept overtime.

THE EDUCATION OF THE INDIANS
OF WESTERN ONTARIO

BULLETIN NO. 13
of the
Department of Educational Research

By

ELGIE E.M. JOBLIN, M.A.

Price \$1.00

Department of Educational Research
Ontario College of Education
371 Bloor Street West, Toronto 5.
1947

Produced by
Hill Lithographing, Toronto
1948

Copyright, 1948
Department of Educational Research
Ontario College of Education

FOREWORD

The Reverend E.E.M.Joblin, author of this monograph, first began working with the Indians, when, as a student missionary, he was stationed for four years with the Mississaugas at Curve Lake, north of Peterborough. Upon ordination as a minister of the United Church of Canada he became minister of the Caradoc Charge at Muncey, which is composed entirely of Indians of the Chippewa, Muncey, and Oneida tribes, and which includes within its boundaries the Mount Elgin Indian Residential School, operated jointly by the Department of Indian Affairs and the United Church of Canada. During Mr. Joblin's eight years on this charge (1936-1944) he had close contact with both the Residential School and the day schools of the area, and he became particularly interested in the educational work among the Indian people.

During the fall of 1943 Mr. Joblin was asked to represent the United Church of Canada on a small Commission to study the educational needs of the Indians of Western Ontario. The few weeks spent in this survey helped to crystallize his interest in Indian education and as a result he obtained leave of absence from his pastoral work and, under the auspices of the Department of Educational Research, spent two years on the research which is presented here.

Mr. Joblin's sincere interest in the welfare of the Indians is obvious to anyone who reads this monograph and his background and experience fit him unusually well for the research here reported. It is hoped that Mr. Joblin's work may have an important influence on improving Indian education. The programme outlined by the Commission mentioned above has already been put into effect and many of the recommendations made in this monograph are being implemented.

Mr. Joblin is now Supervising-Principal of all the schools at Muncey. The Residential School has been closed and in its place is a day school which admits pupils at 12 plus years and carries them to Grade 10 or further. In conjunction with this senior school, six day schools on the reserve provide facilities for pupils to Grade 6.

This monograph, originally prepared as Mr. Joblin's thesis for the Master's degree, was completed in June 1948. It is here published as Bulletin No. 13 of the Department of Educational Research.

John A. Long

Director

April 1948.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
Foreword.....	
Introduction.....	11

PART I. INDIAN EDUCATION IN CANADA

Chapter

I. The History of Indian Education in Canada.....	15
Early Period, to Confederation.	
Since 1867. Period of Expansion.	
II. The Objectives of Indian Education and Types of Schools.....	20
Objectives: to Christianize; to train for responsible citizenship.	
Types of Schools: Day School, Residential School.	
III. Previous Studies.....	26
United Church Commission on Indian Education.	
Yale University-University of Toronto Seminar.	
Memorials of various organizations.	
Theses of Elmer Jamieson: "Indian Education in Canada"; "The Mental Capacity of Southern Ontario Indians."	

PART II. THE INDIANS OF WESTERN ONTARIO

IV. The Area to be Studied and its Background.....	33
Historical Background of the Indians of Western Ontario.	
The Five Reserves - Kettle Point, Sarnia, Walpole Island, Moraviantown and Muncey.	
V. Economic Conditions and Education.....	37
Affected by general conditions in Ontario.	

PART III. INDIAN EDUCATION IN WESTERN ONTARIO

	Page
Summary of Recommendations.....	117
References.....	120

Appendices:

A. Indians Employed (Occupations of Indians) - Summary of Census Figures.....	125
B. Results of Dominion Achievement Tests in Silent Reading.....	126
C. Results of Gates Reading Survey Tests.....	130
D. Bibliography of Indian Education.....	135
E. Selected Reference List for Audio-Visual Aids....	137

LIST OF TABLES

<u>Table</u>		<u>Page</u>
I.	Number of Indian Schools, Enrolment and Attendance, 1900-1944.....	17
II.	Expenditure on Indian Education in Canada, 1900-1944.....	18
III.	Residential Schools, 1944. As apportioned among the Churches and Provinces.....	22
IV.	Summary of School Statement, 1944.....	24
V.	Median IQ's of Indian Pupils (from Jamieson).....	29
VI.	Area and Population of Reserves.....	38
VII.	Grade Distribution and Average Age in Indian Schools of Western Ontario, May 1945.....	48
VIII.	Financial Statement: Mt. Elgin Indian Residential School, 1942.....	50
IX.	Pupils of Mt. Elgin Residential School: - by Agencies.....	51
X.	A Comparison of Enrolment, Attendance, and Percent of Enrolment in Grades I and II, at 4-year intervals, 1931-1943.....	53
XI.	Statistics for Indian Day and Residential Schools of Ontario.....	54
XII.	Age-Grade Distribution of Pupils: Indian Day and Residential Schools of Western Ontario, May 1945..	60
XIII.	Age-Grade Distribution in Rural Schools of Ontario, May 1943.....	61
XIV.	Pupils who Dropped Out of School, 1944-45.....	63

<u>Table</u>		<u>Page</u>
XV.	Summary of Results: Dominion Achievement Tests in Silent Reading.....	70
XVI.	Summary of Results: Gates Reading Survey Tests..	71
XVII.	Accuracy Ratings from Gates Reading Survey Tests.....	72
XVIII.	Promotion and Failure in the Schools, 1945.....	78
XIX.	Pupils' Report on Language and Difficulty of Subjects.....	80
XX.	Starting Age of Pupils Enrolled in Day Schools.....	81
XXI.	Relation of Starting Age to Time Spent in Elementary School.....	82

LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS

<u>Figure</u>		<u>Page</u>
1. Location of Indian Reserves of Western Ontario, (Map 1.).....		34
2. Location of Schools on the Reserves at Muncey, (Map 2.).....		46
3. Grade Distribution Compared in: Indian Schools of Ontario, of Western Ontario, of Six Nations, and Rural Public Schools of Ontario.....		58
4. Grade Distribution in Indian Day Schools in Ontario.....		57
5. Grade Distribution in Indian Day Schools of Western Ontario.....		58
6. Attendance by Average per Week in Two Typical Schools.....		77

INTRODUCTION

This study of Indian Education has been undertaken for several reasons, chief of which are the following: (1) During twelve years (1932-1944) among the Indians of Ontario in the capacity of a minister of the United Church of Canada, in times of depression and in war-time, in their poverty and their comparative wealth, the writer has acquired not only a genuine affection for them but a wholehearted respect for their potentialities and a deep concern for their welfare as Canadian citizens. (2) As a result of some share in educational activities among them and of participation in a survey of the educational needs of Western Ontario Indians made in 1943, there evolved a determination to study the subject further in the hope that every advancement in modern educational psychology, materials, and methods might be applied in the schools attended by the Indian children. (3) It was realized that concern alone did not justify the putting forward of opinions; the latter, to be of any worth, must be based upon sound study. Something of the frustration felt in conventions has been explained in another connection by Bode.¹ "It has become a habit with us, when we are puzzled by a problem, to consult others who are equally puzzled or who perhaps have not reflected on the problem at all and to evolve a solution out of our collective ignorance."

It must not be assumed that the writer is alone in this concern. Many teachers, missionaries, Indian Agents, and Department officials have given it their best thought and effort, yet all would admit that this has been inadequate. It would be presumptuous to think that the suggestions herein made are new, on the contrary, many of them are already included in the plans of the Welfare and Training Division of the Department at Ottawa, and await only opportunity and funds to become realities. It is hoped, however, that the investigations here reported may strengthen the hands of these officials and help them to carry out their purposes with a minimum of delay.

It will be apparent that too many conclusions have been based upon observation with little foundation in scientific data,

¹B.H. Bode, Modern Educational Theories, p. 82, New York: The Macmillan Company. Pp. xiv - 351.

and that the thesis bears out the truth of the statement that "it is truly amazing what a heavy load of implications can be carried by a small donkey of facts."¹ The facts were often known to exist, but without extensive field work they could not be secured in a form acceptable for use. When conclusions are insufficiently supported by data, the reader should bear in mind that the opinions expressed are those of the writer only, and do not necessarily represent the views of either the Department of Education or the Department of Indian Affairs.

It should be pointed out that when reference is made to the 'Department', the term is being applied to the "Indian Affairs Branch" of the Department of Mines and Resources of the Dominion Government at Ottawa. The Welfare and Training Division is a further subdivision responsible for Indian education. When there is reason to speak of the 'Department of Education', it will be designated in the manner here used and will refer to that of the Province of Ontario, unless otherwise stated.

Body-of-the-text references refer to the numbered bibliography which follows the text of this monograph. For example, "(26)" will refer to Indian Education in Ontario by Elmer Jamieson, which is the 26th item in the bibliography. An additional bibliography of useful source material will be found in the Appendix.

The writer wishes to acknowledge, with deep gratitude, the fullest possible co-operation and assistance of the officials, agents, and teachers of the 'Department', and of the staff of the Ontario College of Education. The Department of Educational Research and the Ontario Department of Education made the study financially possible by providing an Assistantship and by assuming the cost of such field work as was done. It is earnestly hoped that the efforts and interest of so many who have contributed to the project will be rewarded by some element of worth within this report for education in general, and for the Indian people in particular.

¹American Council on Education Studies, Educational Research, November 1939.

PART I
INDIAN EDUCATION IN CANADA

CHAPTER I

THE HISTORY OF INDIAN EDUCATION IN CANADA

Since the early days of discovery when the French explorers erected the Fleur-de-lis and Cross at Gaspé (July 24, 1534), the education of the Indians has had a significant place in the chronicles of Canadian history. Originating as a Christian obligation assumed by the Church, it has since been recognized as a national obligation and entrusted to the Dominion Government.

From the first, the attempt to educate the native people took a practical form with the emphasis on agriculture and handicrafts, an emphasis which has been maintained in varying degree and is today a predominant factor in government policy. To trace the use and effectiveness of this policy and the part played in it by the various agencies would be most interesting, but too lengthy for the purposes of this sketch. In the interests of brevity and impartiality, therefore, a report of the Department (13, pp. 14 - 16) for the period up to Confederation in 1867 is quoted:

All the early efforts with Indian children were wholly missionary in character - for nearly 200 years the work was carried on without financial assistance from the Governments. There is record of Recollet Fathers' schools for Indian children in New France as early as 1616, the Jesuits were active early in the 18th century; and settlers in the British colonies established little centres of Christianity at this period. These intermittent and only partially successful efforts were continued under British domination - prominence being given to instruction in religion. Even the education of white children received very little attention - in fact, the first school in Upper Canada (1784) was for the Mohawk Indians who had settled on the shores of the Bay of Quinte, and the first church to be erected in the province (1785) was for the Six Nations Indians of the Grand River Reserve, near Brantford.

"Prior to Confederation, day schools were successfully conducted at Lorette, St. Regis, and Pierreville in Lower Canada. At Caughnawaga, educational work was made nearly impossible by local difficulties. However, there were interesting experiments at Chateauguay and Christieville, where Indian boys from Caughnawaga were taken into residence and given a training in the classroom and on the farm. All these school activities received grants from Lower Canada. The Seminary of St. Sulpice, at Oka, maintained a farm school, at which Indian boys were enrolled.

"In Upper Canada, the Society for the propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts organized the earliest Indian school on the Tyendinaga Reserve (Bay of Quinte). The New England Company, an evangelical organization chartered in 1661 in the reign of Charles II, the Wesleyan Methodist Missionary Society, and the Jesuits interested themselves in Indian educational work early in the 19th century. Approximately forty day schools were established in Upper Canada prior to Confederation, but there is record of only two of them receiving grants from the governments of the

day. Special institutions for the education of Indians were established at this time; the Mohawk Institute by the New England Company; the Alderville and Mt. Elgin Boarding Schools by the Wesleyan Methodist Missionary Society, and the Wikwemikong Boarding School by the Jesuits. In addition, there was a community training centre established by the Governor of Upper Canada at Manitowaning, on Manitoulin Island. This enterprise was for the education of both young and old; but, as it did not appeal to the Indian temperament, it was abandoned in 1856, after twenty years of effort.

"It should be recorded that in 1848 certain Indian bands in Upper Canada agreed to set apart for the purposes of education one-quarter of the amount received in commutation of their annual distribution of ammunition. This Indian school fund was used largely for the maintenance of the Alderville and Mt. Elgin Boarding Schools, payments being made on a per capita grant basis - so much per child per year. Right at the outset of governmental association with Indian educational activity, we find two of the outstanding characteristics of the present system - church co-operation in the work and per capita grant payments to residential schools.

"Prior to Confederation there was practically no organization of Indian schools in other parts of Canada. Missionaries interested in the education of Indian children were opportunists - classes being conducted whenever and wherever the activity gave promise of even a little success. The New England Company experimented with foster homes for Indian children in New Brunswick even before it applied its energy and funds to the work among the Six Nations. A Church of England chaplain to the Hudson's Bay Company conducted a boarding school for Indian children on the Red River as early as 1822. A Roman Catholic priest tried an agricultural school for young Indians at Baie St. Paul, now St. Eustache, Manitoba, in 1833. There is record of day schools in various parts of the west, all conducted by Roman Catholic, Church of England and Methodist missionaries. In British Columbia, the New England Company began work early in the 19th century from which developed the present Lytton Indian Residential School.

"At Confederation, Indian schools were supported for the most part by missionary societies, religious orders and the Indian bands - little financial assistance being given by the Legislatures. Low salaries were paid and the attendance was irregular and, as a consequence, the schools were not effective. When the British North America Act placed the responsibility for the Indians of Canada with the federal government, reports from Indian schools were forwarded to the Department of the Secretary of State, a branch of which was made the administrative office for Indian Affairs. In 1867 one residential school, the Mount Elgin Institute, with an enrolment of 52, and forty-nine day schools with a total of 1,364 pupils - all in Ontario and Quebec - were recognized by the Indian office. There were several Indian schools, entirely missionary in character, that did not make returns to the government. The two most important of these were the Mohawk Institute at Brantford, supported by the New England Company, and the Roman Catholic boarding school at Wikwemikong.

Since Confederation, the history of Indian education is characterized by expansion and is most easily seen in Table I

TABLE I

NUMBER OF INDIAN SCHOOLS,
ENROLMENT, AND ATTENDANCE *
At four-year intervals,
1900 - 1944

Year	Schools			Enrolment			Percent of Attend- ance	
	Total no. schools	All-Indian		Com- bined Ind. and White.	Day	Res'l		
		Day	Res.					
1900	287	226	61	6,349	3,285	9,634	57.49
1904	298	228	70	6,259	3,526	9,765	61.40
1908	315	236	79	6,377	3,931	10,308	62.58
1912	325	251	74	7,399	3,904	11,303	60.49
1916	345	269	76	8,138	4,681	12,799	63.13
1920	321	247	74	7,477	4,719	12,196	62.71
1924	324	242	73	9	8,199	5,673	13,872	66.23
1928	340	251	77	12	8,223	6,795	15,018	73.35
1932	350	261	80	9	8,950	8,213	17,163	76.36
1936	359	270	79	10	9,127	8,906	18,033	76.8
1940	378	288	79	11	9,369	9,027	18,396	81.9
1944	340	258	75	7	7,858	8,729	16,587	79.92

*

From the annual reports of the Department, and Canada Year Book

showing the steady increase in school enrolment, and in Table II which shows the amounts expended for Indian education from 1923 to 1943. In general, the church was still the spearhead of

TABLE II
EXPENDITURE ON INDIAN EDUCATION IN CANADA
1900 - 1944

Year	Amount	Year	Amount
1900	\$ 345,820	1933	1,712,223
1905	432,732	1934	1,620,130
1910	400,810	1935	1,655,821
1915	984,031	1936	1,936,744
1920	1,057,663	1937	1,820,977
1925	1,854,609	1938	1,830,071
1926	1,918,442	1939	1,951,337
1927	1,951,327	1940	2,331,554
1928	2,033,375	1941	1,908,274
1929	2,215,412	1942	1,878,726
1930	2,330,438	1943	1,850,450
1931	2,754,395	1944	1,928,083
1932	2,004,957		

Note: Data are for fiscal year ending March 31st of year stated.

the advance; when the need of a school could be demonstrated, application would be made to the Department for the necessary grant. In many cases the schools were first built and put in operation by the church, and later recognized and financed by the Department. Development was arrested by the outbreak of the war in 1939, but funds have been provided for an extensive programme of building and expansion in the educational field as soon as materials are available. Reference is made in Chapter II to the types of schools and the changing emphases during this period. The history of Indian education thus far is to be found principally in the records of the missionary activity of the churches concerned. Perhaps the most useful summary of these is to be found in Loram and McIlwraith (31, Pt. III & VIII). The Annual Report quoted above (13) continues its report for the period since Confederation and each annual report provides data for the current year. Part of such information is included as well in the annual Canada Year Book (18). A very helpful summary of the history of Indian education is provided by Miller (34, pp. 272-293).

Several facts, revealed in Table I, should be mentioned: (1) the fairly steady increase in total enrolment, until checked by the period of World War II; (2) a similar improvement in the percentage of attendance; (3) a proportionately greater increase in the enrolment in residential schools for the period, which is partly responsible for the favourable increase in the percentage of attendance. There will be occasion to refer in a later chapter to the influence of general economic and war-time conditions upon attendance in Indian schools, and there will be also a comparison between day and residential schools.

For day schools, the high point was reached for enrolment in 1939 (9,573); for average attendance, in 1940 (6,417). For residential schools, the high point was reached for enrolment in 1938 (9,233); for average attendance in 1941 (8,651). For all schools, the high point in percentage of attendance was reached in 1941 (82.4).

Table II shows a significant increase in the expenditure for the education of the Indians during the present century. Even when allowance is made for an increase in Indian population for the same period, it is evident from the foregoing data that this chapter in the history of Indian education has at least been one of important quantitative development. It remains to be seen whether this advance will be renewed, and whether a new chapter will be written with an increased emphasis on qualitative growth.

CHAPTER II

THE OBJECTIVES OF INDIAN EDUCATION AND TYPES OF SCHOOLS

In the early years of contact between the white settlers and the Indian people the contrast in material culture was, of course, very marked. While some of the newcomers were content to leave the Indian to enjoy his 'misery' so long as he brought in the desired furs for the trade, there were others who felt an obligation to share with the Indians the material and spiritual benefits of western civilization. In keeping with the point of view of that period of western expansion, this implied that the native customs, beliefs and thought-forms must be replaced by those of the white man. With the highest of motives and great devotion, even to martyrdom, the task of teaching the natives was begun.

Beginning with two main emphases, (1) to Christianize, and (2) to train in the practical arts so as to raise the standard of living, the objectives of Indian education, while retaining these two, have come to be stated more and more in terms of preparation for citizenship. In this respect, the stated purposes of Indian education now differ but little from those for other Canadians, with the emphasis on practical training persisting. This is apparent in a recent statement of one church official responsible for Indian education, "Lay it down that the education of any child - Indian or white - has for its object:

- (a) To enable the child, on reaching maturity to use his abilities developed by education into skill to make a living in the conditions in which he finds himself.
- (b) To develop such initiative as will enable him not only to make a living but to improve his conditions of life.
- (c) To develop character so that he is not only a skilful but a good citizen.
- (d) To develop those inner resources of will and emotion which will enable the individual to judge values correctly and to find in himself rather than in his surroundings the conditions of happiness and of the good life."

One of the few attempts made to evaluate the situation states in general terms the purpose of Indian education as follows (45):

The Aim of Indian Education. The ultimate aim may be stated as Christian citizenship - an ideal that looks forward to the abolition of the reserves, with their restrictions, and the mingling of our Indian people in fullness of personality and privilege among other Canadian citizens. We are of the opinion that even now this stage has been reached by some and that the experiment being conducted of permitting Indians to give up the reserve and become full citizens should be carefully studied, and that the church and the government should get together on a survey of the possibility of a process of gradual enfranchisement. We feel that this ideal must be kept in mind when it comes to the determination of the curriculum of residential schools. Our estimate is that at the present time possibly five per cent of the pupils in our schools can be so trained and educated that they will leave the school and integrate themselves in the common life of the Canadian people, but that the great majority of those now in residence must return to the reserve and live under the regulations, as well as share in the benefits and protective influences which the reserve system throws around them. The larger part of the problem which we are studying lies in aiding that ninety-five per cent to become healthful, capable, cultured Christian people - preparatory to a wider mingling and co-operation in the full status of citizenship which will be reached by many of their children.

"We cannot escape the conclusion that no programme of either the government or the church, looking towards the development of the Canadian Indian, can be successful which does not provide an adequate and substantial economic foundation for Indian life.

While most of the parties concerned with the problem would doubtless agree with some such high purpose, it is obvious that in its interpretation and application it will have been considerably altered by the purposes of the church in charge, the principal, or other persons affecting policy. In practice, the higher purpose has frequently been obscured by lesser considerations such as proselytizing, maintaining an institution for its own sake or for its sentimental value, or even, as some would suggest, to make white people of the Indians. On the whole, it seems true that the objectives have been in the best interests of the Indian people, and have developed with the changing thought and practice of educators in the country generally.

Types of Schools. To achieve these objectives, two main types of school have developed, the day school on the reserve for 'day' pupils only, and the residential school on or off the reserve, where children are fed, clothed, and educated away from home for the greater part of the year. The advantages and disadvantages of the two types are set forth in the report quoted above (45), and

are largely dependent upon the stage of development and accessibility of the people. Table I gave some indication of the rapid growth of the enrolment in residential schools, which was due in part to the fact that the child was taken away from an environment which often made training impossible, and also that such a school assured more regular attendance and made possible the practical and industrial training of the institutional school. The demand is now growing for day schools in the more advanced areas where parents feel they are better able to provide for their children and want them at home in their earlier years, and where the life of the reserve has now attained a level comparable to that of the surrounding white population.

Since the government first assumed responsibility for Indian education, the residential schools have been financed by a per capita grant (ranging normally between \$150 and \$200 per annum) from the Department. The management of the schools has been entrusted to the churches (see Table III) who nominate the principal, usually a clergyman, and are responsible for any deficit incurred beyond the grant. The school is responsible for

TABLE III
RESIDENTIAL SCHOOLS, 1944
(As apportioned among the Churches and Provinces) * .

Province	Number of Schools	Denomination			
		Ch. of England	Pres'n	Rom. Cath.	United Church
Nova Scotia	1	1	...
Quebec	1	1	...
Ontario	13	5	1	6	1
Manitoba	9	1	1	4	3
Saskatchewan	14	3	...	9	2
Alberta	19	5	...	12	2
Northwest Territories	4	1	...	3	...
British Columbia . . .	13	2	...	9	2
Yukon	1	1
Total	75	18	2	45	10

* Annual Report, Indian Affairs Branch

the entire needs of the pupil, both material and spiritual, as well as for his education. This type of school represents the ultimate in paternalism, but in certain circumstances has been the only effective method of education.

Day schools are also financed by the Department, but are of two kinds. Many are now entirely under the Department through its representative, the Indian agent, who acts as a one-man school board. Others are jointly controlled by the Department and some church, the latter appointing a 'missionary-teacher' and supplementing the government grant to make up what is thought to be an adequate salary. This second type is found usually on the smaller reserves, where the financial requirements for a full-time missionary as well as a teacher would be prohibitive.

In all types of schools, the work is inspected by the Provincial School Inspectors for the areas by arrangement between the two Departments, with the exception of British Columbia, where there is an Inspector of Indian Schools. In the matter of supervision, therefore, many of the schools have a three-fold responsibility; to the Department through the agent and Inspector of Agencies; to the Department of Education through its Inspectors, whose approval is necessary for continued support; to the church, which in many cases appoints the principal or teacher, and may share the cost.

In order to present an over-all picture of the situation in Canada, Table IV is provided, showing the proportion of the students enrolled in the various types of schools and their distribution among the provinces. By comparing it with Table I, allowance can be made for the effect of the war years upon school enrolment and attendance.

In the main, the government has interpreted its responsibility to be the provision of an elementary school education of a very practical nature for all Indian children. The Indian Act provides that:

Every Indian child between the full ages of seven and sixteen years who is physically able shall attend such day, industrial or boarding school as may be designated by the Superintendent General (Minister) for the full periods during which such school is open each year; provided that where it has been made to appear to the satisfaction of the Superintendent General (Minister) that it would be detrimental to any particular Indian child to have it discharged from school on attaining the full age of sixteen years, the Superintendent General (Minister) may direct that such child be detained at school for such further period as may seem to be advisable, but not beyond the full age of eighteen years, and in such case the provisions of this section with respect to truancy shall apply to such child and its parents, guardians or such persons with whom such child resides during such further period of school attendance. (14)

TABLE IV
SUMMARY OF SCHOOL STATEMENT, 1944

Province	Classes of Schools			Total Number of Schools	Number on Roll		Average Attendance	Percent- age of Attendance
	Day	Resi- dential	Com- bined		Boys	Girls		
Prince Edward Island	1	1	13	10	23	16 69.57
Nova Scotia	9	1	10	189	209	398	314 72.89
New Brunswick	10	10	156	162	318	213 66.98
Quebec	28	1	1	30	726	733	1,459	1,089 74.84
Ontario	76	13	2	91	1,886	2,118	4,004	3,193 79.75
Manitoba	42	9	3	54	1,041	1,127	2,168	1,641 75.69
Saskatchewan	27	14	1	42	1,164	1,213	2,377	1,974 83.05
Alberta	1	19	20	915	1,030	1,945	1,737 89.31
Northwest Territories	3	4	7	85	131	216	182 84.26
British Columbia	57	13	70	1,686	1,903	3,589	2,834 78.96
Yukon	4	1	5	42	48	90	64 71.11
Totals	258	75	7	340	7,903	8,684	16,587	13,257 79.92

From the Report of the Indian Affairs Branch, 1944. Department of Mines and Resources.

While secondary school and higher education have not been generally encouraged for most of the Indians, neither have they been prevented, and an impressive number have been assisted annually to attend nearby High or Vocational Schools. Grade IX and occasionally Grade X have been provided in some residential schools. Where the school is in or near a large town, pupils have continued to live at the school while attending classes in the adjacent high school. So great is the diversity of conditions in various parts of Canada that one can seldom generalize on any of these details. For this reason, any evaluation of policy or objectives will have to be deferred until a later chapter, when attention can be focussed on a smaller area.

CHAPTER III

PREVIOUS STUDIES

Apart from historical works and the writings of anthropologists and ethnologists, there has been very little work published on the education of the Indians of Canada. There is a greater volume of such materials on the United States, some of which have been listed and added as an appendix to this report. Those materials based on the Canadian situation and known to the writer will be reviewed briefly here.

Reference has already been made to the Report of Commission on Indian Education set up by the United Church of Canada, (45). A group of four well-qualified persons visited, during May of 1935, Indian schools in which the United Church was interested. The schools visited were: Residential - Brandon, Norway House, and Portage La Prairie in Manitoba; File Hills and Round Lake in Saskatchewan; Edmonton and Morley in Alberta; Coqualeetza and Alberni in British Columbia. Day Schools - Assiniboine in Saskatchewan; Cape Mudge, Nanaimo, and Campbell River in British Columbia.

The Report includes an evaluation of the two types of school and excellent recommendations for the increased effectiveness of Indian education. Such questions as the nature and needs of Indian children, qualified personnel, equipment, curriculum and placement are discussed in a very constructive way. While no schools in Ontario were visited and the work was done primarily to direct one church in its work, the report is of real value and will be quoted from time to time.

In September, 1939, Yale University and the University of Toronto collaborated in a seminar on The North American Indian Today, the title of the report edited by Loram and McIlwraith (31). Outstanding men and women, both Indian and white, from the United States and Canada, attended this seminar and contributed the papers which constitute the report. Papers on Indian History, Missions, Government, Economics, Health, Education, Arts and Crafts, and Race Relations, give a comprehensive picture of the situation in our two countries. Its main contribution to the subject of this thesis is in Part VIII, The Problem of Education, which includes five chapters - Problems of Indian

Education in Canada, Indian Education in the United States, Curricula for Indian Schools, Church and State in Indian Education in the United States and Canada, Essentials of Education for American Indians.

In quite recent years various organizations have grown up among the Indians of the provinces, and from these have come 'memorials' or recommendations to the Department concerning the needs of the Indian people. One worthy of note is a printed booklet bearing the title Native Canadians - a plan for the rehabilitation of the Indians (38), which was prepared by the Okanagan Society for the Revival of Indian Arts and Crafts, Oliver, B.C. This organization of people interested in their Indian neighbours has added to its local activities this small but significant pamphlet. Its main emphases are, in brief - establishment of day schools "with the boarding schools being adapted as high schools and technical schools for the older pupils"; these day schools to be of the community-centre type and promoting health education, home-making instruction, child care and other community interests; an increasing amount of vocational training designed to fit the needs of the area; special training for teachers; the freeing of Indian education from religious domination. The brief urges, in conclusion, the appointment of a Royal Commission to study the entire field of Indian affairs in Canada.

A "Memorial on Indian Affairs" (25), by the Indian Association of Alberta, September 1945, is in essential agreement with the above memorial. Its principal concern is to see some of its residential schools replaced by day schools. By reference to Table IV, it will be seen that in Alberta the residential school predominates (19 Res., 1 Day). This expression of opinion from the Indians themselves, which reflects much careful thought on the part of their most capable leaders, is of special interest in that it indicates a growing concern on the part of the Indians for the planning of their own future. Other organizations are doing similar work and are represented in a national organization, which has received the respectful attention of Department officials and will exert an important influence on the formulation of future policies in Indian affairs.

Two theses by Elmer Jamieson, M.A., D.Paed., of Toronto, an Indian teacher from the Six Nations Reserve near Brantford, deserve special attention because of their direct bearing on the work of the present thesis. Indian Education in Canada (26) presents the statistics for the Dominion and is consequently somewhat general

in character. It is concerned in part with the causes of retardation in the schools, and includes a statement which must be considered in the light of subsequent developments, namely, "It simply means that a large number of (Indian) pupils go into the world equipped with no more than the education provided in the course of study in the first two Standards (Grades I-III). A large number never get out of Standard I (Grades I,II)."

A more important work for the purposes of this thesis is Jamieson's The Mental Capacity of Southern Ontario Indians (27). For this thesis, Dr. Jamieson made a thorough study of the mental capacity of Indian pupils of the Six Nations Reserve, the Mohawk Institute there and the Mt. Elgin Residential School at Muncey. Both these residential schools included pupils from the area being studied here. His conclusions regarding the intelligence of Indians are substantiated by similar investigations in the United States and the convictions, based on observation, of those who have worked among the Indian people, namely, that the Indian people are not lacking in intelligence but measure up very well with pupils elsewhere, follow the normal curve of intelligence, and are not handicapped in their education by low mental capacity, but by other factors. The present thesis accepts these results, and does not concern itself with the problem of mental capacity but with achievement and the factors which promote or prevent it.

Dr. Jamieson carried out an extensive programme of testing for both intelligence and achievement, for the latter in the subjects Silent Reading, Handwriting, Spelling and Arithmetic. The results of his study shed light on such problems as the following: a complex language environment; the small percentage of full-blood Indians; the lower social status of Indian parents; irregular school attendance; high percentage of pupils in lower grades; higher age per grade for Indian pupils; the factors affecting the mental capacity of the pupils tested.

The tests used for the measurement of mental capacity were - The National Intelligence Test, (N.I.T.), The Pintner Non-Language Test (P.N.L.T.), The Pintner-Paterson Scale of Performance Tests (P.P.S.P.T.), and The Pintner-Cunningham Primary Mental Test (P.C.P.M.T.). The results are revealed in part by the median IQ's given in Table V.

TABLE V
MEDIAN IQ'S OF INDIAN PUPILS
(from Jamieson)

	N.I.T.	P.N. L.T.	P.P. S.P.T.	P.C. P.M.T.
Ontario Indians	80	97	96	78
Indians in Six Nations Schools	84	101	107	90
Indians in the Mohawk Institute	76	93	89	80
Indians in the Mt. Elgin School	78	91		66

"In ranking Indian children from the results of this investigation, it must not be forgotten that a large percentage of the Indian children tested were unfortunate children. The median IQ of Indian children, excluding these unfortunates, is above 100 on both the Pintner Non-Language Mental Test and the Pintner-Paterson Scale of Performance Tests (Short Scale). These results simply show that the establishment of race norms in intelligence is attended with many dangers." (25, p.210)

"An examination of the Accomplishment Quotients computed on composite scores in reading, writing, spelling and arithmetic on the basis of both N.I.T. and P.N.L.T. mental ages reveals the amount of wastage of mental ability in school work. Less than one third of the Indian pupils are working up to, or above, their mental capacity when the mental capacity is measured by the N.I.T. Only 6 per cent of the Indian children are doing work in the four fundamental subjects which is up to or above their mental capacity when the mental capacity is measured by the P.N.L.T." (25,pp. 212-213)

PART II

THE INDIANS OF WESTERN ONTARIO

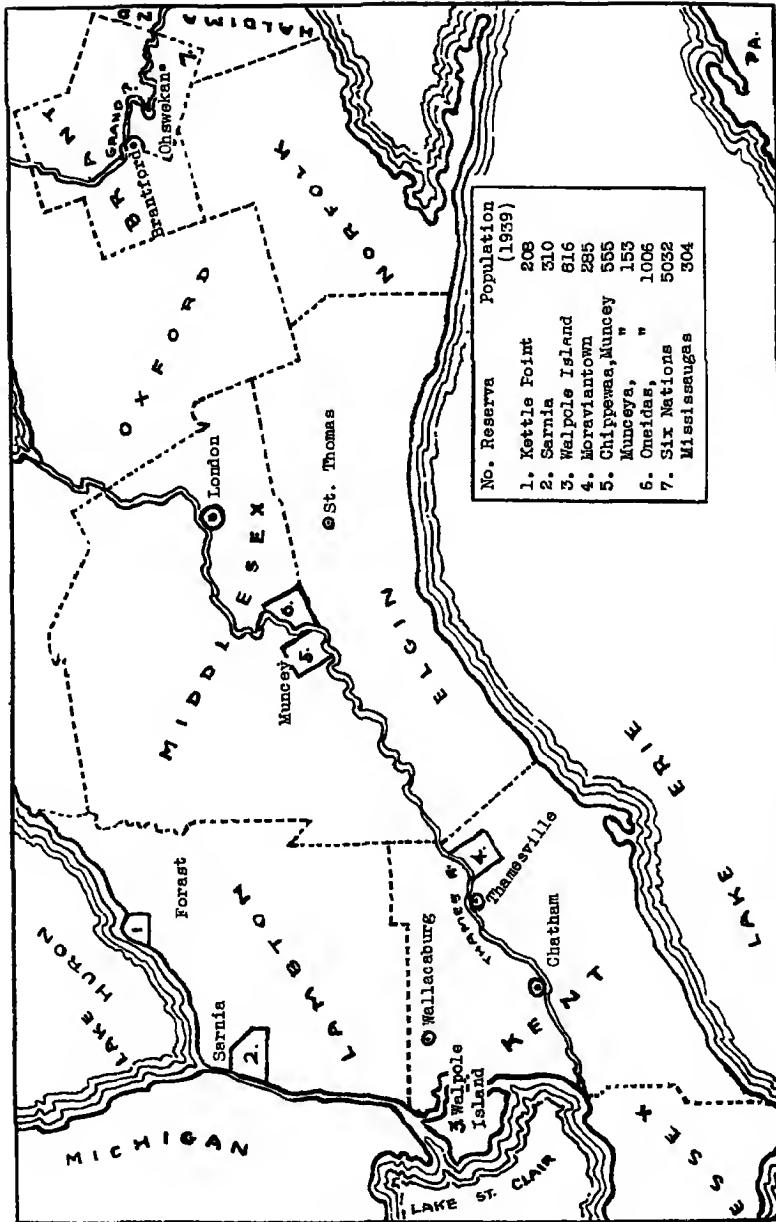


Figure 1. LOCATION OF INDIAN RESERVES OF WESTERN ONTARIO,
(Map 1.)

would reach the villages of the Neutral, where sworn enemies remained friends as long as they did not go into the fields (Jesuit Relations, Vol.21, p.193)

"The Neutral had retained their inland agrarian culture. They had settled a rich grain-producing area that was partly covered with mixed deciduous — elm, beech, maple — and coniferous — pine, hemlock — forest, well south of the canoe birch. Consequently they remained overland travelers Except during campaigns against the Mascouten, they found little reason to travel, but stayed at home hunting and fishing over their domain, which was abundantly stocked. Like the Petun, they traded surplus tobacco, corn and hemp through the Huron to the northern Algonquians. Later the Huron, lest they lose control of the trade, sought desperately to keep the French traders and missionaries from reaching the Neutral (Hunt, 1940, pp. 50-52, IV-1(e)).

"Hunt (ibid., pp. 96-100) has pointed out that, following the Huron dispersion, the Neutral harboured many refugees and stood between the Seneca and the realization of their fur-trade ambitions in the lower Great Lakes. They also threatened to form an encircling league of Neutral, Erie, and Andaste. Therefore, during 1651 the Mohawk, in exchange for help against the French, combined with Seneca to attack them, but even successful retaliation on the Seneca for their one defeat did not restore their confidence. Within a year they were dispersed or incorporated into the Iroquois; they formed half a captive town among the Seneca. A few fled to the Ottawa and Tobacco, and others went to the Erie or fled into the wilderness.

For some years after the "dispersion," better known for its antecedent, the dispersion of the Hurons, with its destruction of the Jesuit Mission there, the former land of the Neutrals remained unpopulated, a hunting ground for the Iroquois tribes from the present New York State. Eventually, scattered bands began to filter in from surrounding areas, principally from farther north, around Lake Superior. The latter were of the Ojibway nation, now commonly known as Chippewas, who constitute a large proportion of the Indians of Ontario. Thus the present Indian population of this area are in a sense immigrants, as were the Neutrals before them and the Algonquins before that.

In the course of a century and a half of eventful history, the Indians of Western Ontario have settled in their present locations. Briefly, the record of later years is as follows (16):

The Moravians (Map, #4), formerly Delawares of the Lenni Lenape nation and situated just west of the Hudson River in the United States, were among the earliest to arrive. "The Reserve originally consisted of 51,160 acres situated in the Townships of Zone and Orford, and was set apart by Order in Council in 1793. All the reservation except the present Reserve (see Table VI) has been surrendered and sold for the benefit of the Indians."

The Chippewas of the Thames at Muncey (Map, #5) retained their reserve "in the cession made by them of the Longwood Tract in 1819," and a little later admitted the small group of Munsees, who were a branch of the Delawares.

The Chippewas of Kettle Point (Map, #1), since 1941 including those of Stoney Point, reserved their lands "in a cession of a large tract in the London and Western districts made by them in 1827." Those of Stoney Point were moved to Kettle Point in 1941 to provide space for the Ipperwash military camp.

The Chippewas of Sarnia (St. Clair, Map, #2) retained their reserve in the same manner as those of Kettle Point in 1827. They have sold portions of their holdings along the River St. Clair.

Walpole Island, at the head of Lake St. Clair (Map, #3): "The Chippewas settled on the island in 1831 by order of the Government. The island appears to have been set aside by the Government as a Crown reserve to be used for the purpose of settling Indians thereon. The Pottawattamies came from the United States in 1841, and on petition were permitted by the Government to settle on the island."

The Oneidas of the Thames, at Muncey (Map, #6): "Purchased for these Indians by the Government with their own money which they brought with them from the United States." The Oneidas were one of the tribes of the Six Nations Confederacy of New York State; part of the tribe came to Canada, the remainder moving to Green Bay, Wisconsin.

There are several advantages in limiting this survey to these reserves. They form a compact geographical unit; their background and degree of adjustment to our way of life have much in common, but with sufficient differences to justify including all of them; they include the various types of schools listed in Chapter II (see also Chapter V); the religious faith of the people is almost entirely Protestant, which eliminates some problems which may occur when both Roman Catholic and Protestant groups are found on the same reserve. It may be of interest to note in this connection the religious affiliations claimed by the people of these reserves in the census of 1939: Anglican, 1525; Baptist, 160; United Church, 1406; Roman Catholic, 26; Other Christian, 194; Aboriginal Beliefs, 140 (Oneida).

CHAPTER V

ECONOMIC CONDITIONS AND EDUCATION

In a quotation in Chapter II, the opinion was expressed - "We cannot escape the conclusion that no programme of either the government or the church, looking towards the development of the Canadian Indian, can be successful which does not provide an adequate and substantial economic foundation for Indian life." There is a close interaction between the education and the economic conditions on the reserves. In times of unemployment and low income, the pupils' attendance and opportunity for learning are reduced by ill-health, insufficient clothing or lunches (in spite of the hot lunches and cod-liver oil supplied to all pupils during the winter months). In such times the enrolment in residential schools is high. When parents are earning reasonable wages, the day schools reflect the improved conditions; the demand grows for day school education so that children may be at home. The ebb and flow of economic conditions in the province is promptly reflected in education on the reserves, but the influence of education on the living conditions, while significant when seen in its true perspective, is less noticeable.

For the reserves under review, there is great variation in the economic conditions as between reserves and as between families on each reserve. For example at Sarnia, with industries at Sarnia and Port Huron, there ought to be no problem of unemployment; in addition, the people have a worthwhile semi-annual payment of interest on invested funds. The Kettle Point people have poorer opportunities for work, but quite a few are competent fishermen. The Walpole Island folk work in Algonac for good wages, when general conditions are good; some income is derived from the rental of land to outside farmers. The Indians of Moraviantown and Muncey depend to a great extent on employment in the surrounding country and towns, largely in seasonal work such as the tobacco harvest, woodcutting, berry-picking, and domestic service; a few are farming their land. The Oneidas, with almost no invested funds and very small acreage per capita, have the least resources and are proportionately more dependent upon employment conditions in the surrounding area.

Unfortunately, the Indians will be "let out" of employment first, no so much because of race prejudice as because employers reason that the Dominion Government will provide for its

"wards." This misguided policy denies to the Indian the right to provide for his family by his own labour. The devastating effects upon all men of unemployment, idleness, and dependence on relief are well known in Canada. If the great impetus given the advancement of our Indians by these years of employment during the war is not to be lost, "an adequate economic foundation for Indian life" is of vital importance.

Table VI provides data, by reserves, on the acreage and

TABLE VI
AREA AND POPULATION OF RESERVES *

AGENCY and Tribe	Area of Reserve (Acres)	Popul- ation	Age Groups					65 up
			Under 7	7-16 inc.	17-21 inc.	22-65 inc.		
SARNIA, Chippewas .								
Kettle Point . . .	2,224	208	36	43	18	107	4	
Sarnia	6,148	310	50	65	28	153	14	
Non-band members	...	118	35	25	25	33	..	
		636	121	133	71	293	18	
WALPOLE ISLAND	40,480							
Chippewas	624	75	115	78	328	28	
Pottawattamies	192	50	27	18	88	9	
		816	125	142	96	416	37	
MORAVIAN	3,028							
Moravians	285	44	47	20	163	8	
CARADOC								
Chippewas) . . .	10,800	555	61	107	65	288	34	
Munceys)	153	13	26	18	89	7	
Oneidas	5,272	1,006	79	200	110	549	68	
		1,714	153	333	193	926	109	
TOTALS	67,952	3,451	443	655	380	1,801	172	

*From Schedule of Reserves (15) and Annual Report of Indian Affairs Branch.

population, including a column which indicates the number of children of school age (7 to 16 inclusive) at the time of the

census in 1941. The number does not vary greatly from year to year, except that during the war years the parents have been living elsewhere and sending their children to nearby schools. This has reduced the number of pupils enrolled in Indian schools (see Table I). Enrolment has been further reduced by the fact that many older children could earn good wages and were kept out of school for this purpose. This form of truancy was facilitated by the curtailment of expenditures during the war, resulting in the temporary withdrawal of attendance officers - a doubtful economy.

A Table providing more detailed information on the occupations of Indians has been added as an Appendix (Appendix A). Among other things it reveals the extent to which the Indians of Ontario are adapting themselves to the type of work in which their neighbours are engaged.

PART III

INDIAN EDUCATION IN WESTERN ONTARIO

CHAPTER VI

THE SCHOOLS

For the education of the Indians of the five reserves included in this survey, the Department maintained, prior to the war, twelve day schools and the Mt. Elgin Indian Residential School at Muncey. In addition, children are sent to other residential schools such as Mohawk and Shingwauk (Sault Ste. Marie). Two of the day schools have two rooms, and Mt. Elgin normally operates three classrooms, making a total of seventeen classrooms for this area. Mt. Elgin includes some pupils from other reserves (Table IX), but the majority are from these five reserves (1943, 70 per cent; 1945, 72.54 per cent). Table VI supplies the facts concerning the number of children of school age (7-16 years) in this area for the year 1939, but these do not take into account the early starting age of Indian children. Of 382 pupils enrolled in the day schools in May 1945 whose starting age could be determined, 52.61 per cent began at six years, 11.02 per cent at five years, and .52 per cent at four years of age - a total of 64.15 per cent below the compulsory school age. These facts will require further investigation later, but at this point it is obvious that they will have an important bearing on the enrolment and on the insufficient pupil-capacity of the schools in the event of a high percentage of attendance. It should be pointed out, however, that the transient type of life enforced on many Indian families by their search for employment makes it very difficult to determine their educational needs from year to year.

The school at Kettle Point (Map, Fig.1, #1) is now a two-room school, a junior room having been added in 1944 to accommodate the extra pupils from Stoney Point. Unfortunately, the needs were underestimated, and in its first year of operation, 1944-45, it was already overcrowded, even when the senior room took all grades but I and II. The school is of frame construction and kept in good repair, heated with stoves, equipped with the usual stationary seats, a good supply of cupboard and drawer space in the senior room, but with insufficient light. The windows, though on one side of the room, are too few and too low. The school compares very favourably with the majority of rural Ontario schools, with the added advantage of a compact teachers' residence attached. The seating capacity: Junior, 18; Senior, 30; enrolment in May 1945: Junior, 29; Senior, 24. From this reserve,

15 pupils were attending Mt. Elgin. The maximum distance for pupils to travel is said to be three and one-half miles, which can be very difficult during the winter months, but which is not considered excessive in rural areas.

St. Clair school (Map, #2, Sarnia) is a one-room brick building well located on the reserve and within easy reach of Sarnia by bus; heated by a gas furnace in the corner of the classroom, and with a two-burner gas plate for preparing hot lunches; has a long work-table and benches in addition to the usual seats. This school has become increasingly overcrowded so that it has been necessary to send the senior pupils into Sarnia until a proposed two-room school can be built. This 'skimming off' of the senior grades has proven most helpful to the teacher, and will serve to illustrate a recommendation to be brought forward later in this thesis. Whether this method will be continued or a two-room school built will doubtless depend on the relative cost of the two methods. The seating capacity is 40; its enrolment (May 1945) 53; attending Mt. Elgin, 7; attending public school in Sarnia, 6.

Walpole Island (Map, #3) has two schools. Number 1 school has two rooms and living accommodation for the teachers; a frame building of good appearance, though dull inside because of insufficient light and dark finish. It has a seating capacity of 80: junior, 45; senior, 35; an enrolment of 58: junior 31; senior 27. Number 2 school is a one-room frame building with teacher's residence attached and somewhat isolated in the southern part of the island; is seldom used to its capacity of 35; an enrolment of 30 with relatively low attendance. All three rooms are heated by huge box stoves, having metal jackets for circulation which are not always used to the best advantage. Five pupils from this reserve attended Mt. Elgin during the year, but a good number of others attended other residential schools.

Moraviantown (Map, #4) is supplied with a one-room brick school with a basement, furnace, and the usual equipment. With a seating capacity of 42, an enrolment of 43 and good attendance, it is generally well-filled. A distinctive feature of this school is that it is taught by a missionary-teacher. A separate residence is provided by the Department, a very attractive place with electric power and a good garden. In this case the missionary-teacher is a nominee of the United Church of Canada, which is responsible for part of his salary, and which he represents as pastor among the people.

The remainder of the day schools are on the Caradoc Agency around Muncey, their location being shown by the map on the following page (Fig.2). Normally there were seven of these one-room schools in operation, but during the war the number has been reduced by one, sometimes two. Lower Muncey has been closed for several years for lack of pupils; Bear Creek has been closed at different times for lack of a teacher. Back Settlement school was burned several years ago and has not been replaced as yet, school being conducted in the basement of the Church of England building across the road. The three school buildings remaining on the Chippewa and Muncey reserves are small frame structures of typical design, with centre front entrance and averaging a seating capacity of about 25. During the year 1944-45, the three schools operating had a total enrolment of 52. Bear Creek was forced to close in the latter half of the year and its pupils (13 enrolled) were sent to the residential school. Post-war plans for these pupils are largely dependent upon the disposition of the residential school, and upon the extent to which the people come back to the reserve to live.

The three Oneida schools are of a somewhat better quality. Number 1 is a new frame building with separate entrances, splendid basement and furnace, manual training equipment, washrooms and teacher's residence - a model school, with the possible exception of its 35 stationary seats. Number 2 is a smaller frame building, but with separate entrances and cloak rooms; the seats for 30 are fastened to runners in small groups, and moveable. Number 3 is an older brick building with a little-used basement; separate entrances and cloak rooms; seating capacity of 30. The enrolment of the three schools in May 1945 was 101.

The eleven day schools share some characteristics: all have good playgrounds; all have the traditional type of seating; all have only outdoor privies for the pupils; all but Oneida Number 1 have insufficient natural light, and none has electric power. On the whole they are neither better nor worse than the average rural schools of Ontario after which they are patterned, except that five have teachers' residences incorporated in them, and two others (Oneida Numbers 2 and 3) have a residence midway between the two which may be used by either or both teachers. With a seating capacity in the present day schools of 415, and with 655 children between the ages of 7 and 16 years in a representative year such as 1939, it is clear that the day schools are not prepared to provide an adequate education for the children of this area. When allowance has been made for some who will attend white schools, the conclusion is still unavoidable that without the various residential schools, the educational facilities

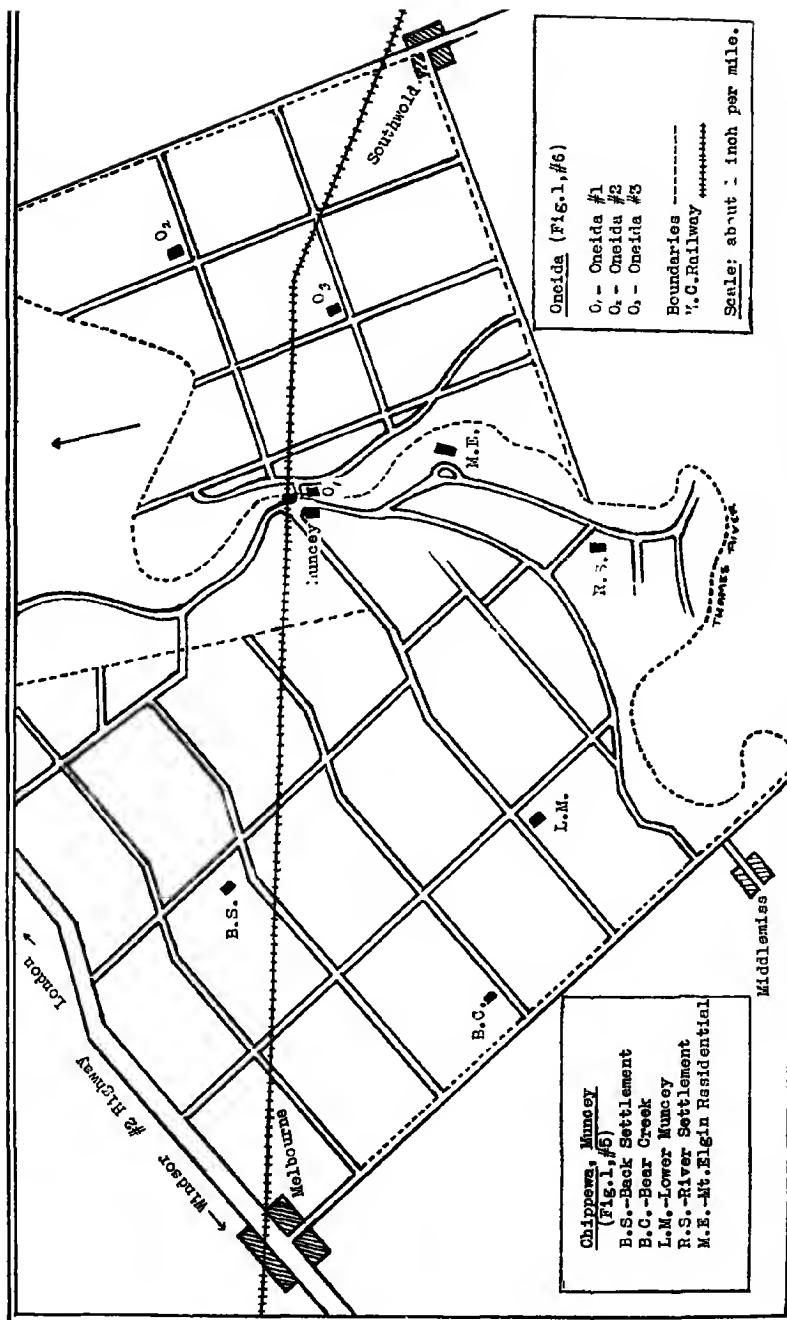


Figure 2. LOCATION OF SCHOOLS ON THE RESERVES AT MUNCEY,
 (Map 2.)

would be totally inadequate. A low percentage of attendance has frequently saved a school from serious over-crowding.

Table VII provides the data on the distribution in the grades of the schools of the area, together with the enrolment and average age in May 1945. In computing the age, no account was taken of months, but simply the age in years as of the third week of May. A more detailed analysis of the age-grade distribution is provided in Chapter VII (Table XII).

The Mt. Elgin Indian Residential School is one of the oldest Indian schools in Canada, dating from 1849. The plan was conceived by the Reverend Peter Jones, an Ojibway chief and minister of the Wesleyan Methodist Church, who was commissioned by the church in 1844 to visit England in search of the funds for a building. The Indians contributed to the project as well, especially in the gift of two hundred acres of land for the school at Muncey. Portions of a letter by Mr. Jones (28) reveal his purpose for the school:

Our contemplated Indians are to build two schools, one for 100 boys and one for 100 girls: the boys to be taught, in connection with a common English education, the art of farming, and useful trades and the girls instructed in reading, writing, domestic economy, sewing, knitting and spinning so as to qualify them to be good wives and mothers. It is also our intention to select from these schools the most promising boys and girls, with a view to giving them superior advantages so as to qualify them for missionaries and school teachers among their brethren

The original building is still in use for classrooms and staff apartments, but it has been condemned as unsafe and must be removed. Later buildings have provided living and educational accommodation for 150 pupils, both boys and girls. Since Confederation it has been the responsibility of the Dominion government and it has been staffed by, first, the Methodist Church, and since 1925, the United Church of Canada. Since 1909, when the Reverend S. R. McVitty became its principal, it has required no financial assistance from the church, but has been maintained on the per capita grant plus additional grants for building maintenance. The contribution of this institution to the life of the Indians of Western Ontario has been incalculable. To the extent that it has remained true to the purpose of its founder, it has done much to guide the people in learning the strange ways of the white man.

To house, feed, clothe, and educate 150 or even more students ranging in age from 6 to 18 years, the school operates a model farm of two hundred acres plus many more rented acres. To do the work of such an institution and to teach the pupils how to perform these arts of our civilization, a considerable staff is required. These are normally the following: the principal, a

TABLE VII

GRADE DISTRIBUTION AND AVERAGE AGE IN
INDIAN SCHOOLS OF WESTERN ONTARIO, MAY 1945

SCHOOL	Beginners After Easter			Grade I			Grade II			Grade III			Grade IV			Grade V			Grade VI			Grade VII				
	No.	Age	No. Age	No.	Age	No.	Age	No.	Age	No.	Age	No.	Age	No.	Age	No.	Age	No.	Age	No.	Age	No.	Age	No.	Age	
Kettle Point	6	6-8*	19	8-3	10	10-0	3	11-3	9	10-6	6	12-6	0	00-0	4	13-5	2	15-5								
St. Clair	0	0-0	21	7-4	12	9-7	8	10-9	4	13-5	5	12-8	2	15-0	1	14-0	0	00-0								
Walpole Island #1	5	5-8	16	7-7	10	9-3	13	10-8	6	11-5	5	13-2	1	15-0	1	15-0	1	15-0								
Walpole Island #2	3	6-3	13	7-8	5	10-8	6	10-8	0	00-0	3	12-6	0	00-0	0	00-0	0	00-0								
Moraviantown	3	6-0	14	7-7	4	7-5	5	10-0	3	11-0	5	12-2	3	12-7	4	13-5	2	15-5								
Back Settlement	0	0-0	2	7-0	5	8-0	4	9-3	4	11-0	2	12-5	2	12-5	4	13-8	0	00-0								
River Settlement	0	0-0	9	7-7	1	12-0	2	10-0	2	11-0	1	13-0	0	00-0	0	00-0	1	14-0								
Oneida #1	4	5-3	11	7-2	3	9-0	5	9-0	3	10-7	2	11-5	4	12-5	1	14-0	1	15-0								
Oneida #2	6	6-3	10	8-1	6	8-2	3	9-0	6	10-8	1	12-0	0	00-0	1	15-0	4	14-0								
Oneida #3	3	6-0	8	7-4	4	8-8	7	10-4	1	11-0	3	11-7	2	12-5	0	00-0	2	14-0								
TOTAL	30	6-1	123	7-6	60	9-4	56	10-2	37	11-3	33	12-4	14	13-4	16	14-1	13	14-7								
Mt. Eggin Residential	0	0-0	11	6-2	11	8-8	5	10-2	14	10-6	19	11-7	16	13-6	12	14-7	14	14-9								

* 6-8 = 6 years, 8 months

clergymen who assumes full responsibility for the school, both educationally and financially; a superintendent in charge of the inside staff; a dietitian and assistant dietitian in charge of the staff and pupils' dining-rooms; a boys' supervisor and a girls' supervisor; a qualified nurse; a sewing instructress; three school teachers; a herdsman; a farmer and a maintenance man. Additional help has been employed in the past for the teaching of special crafts such as weaving, metal work, or music; help is also needed in harvest time in spite of the recent mechanization of the farm, since most of the pupils are too young to do heavy work. Most of the work of the school has been done by the older pupils, working on the half-day system — half the day in the classroom, and half in the work of the dormitories, kitchen, farm, etc.

It is impossible to go further into the details here, but two tables are included to supply some information of importance in a small space. Table VIII gives some indication of the scope of the operations for one year, in the financial statement for the year 1942. Table IX indicates the reserves from which the school receives its pupils.

The serious decline in enrolment calls for a word of explanation. The war years provided employment and big wages for the Indian people, which affected the school directly in two ways. (1) Older pupils could themselves earn good wages and could scarcely be expected to remain in school, especially when some parents yielded to the temptation to exploit the earning power of children whose support they had previously been content to leave to the school. (2) The improved economic condition led parents to want their children at home where they would presumably attend the day school. In this change of emphasis, the Department and its agents readily concurred, so that children were not recommended to the residential school except in case of real necessity. Probably no thinking person would deny that children are better at home, when the parents can provide for them, than in an institution. But, in practice, this point of view is open to two criticisms. First, while the children can be provided for at home, either their own or a foster home, and receive care as far as their material and even moral needs are concerned, yet the reserves themselves are not yet ready to provide for their educational needs. When the day schools have become adequate to the need, as the Department intends them to be, then they may dispense with the residential school. Until then, children should not be denied entrance to a residential school simply for reasons of economy.

Second, over a period of years there has grown up an attitude toward the residential school which too often relegates it to the position of an orphanage, a place where only those children

TABLE VIII
FINANCIAL STATEMENT

Mt. Elgin Indian Residential School, 1942

RECEIPTS:

Government per capita grant		\$21,289.77
Special grant - 1941		1,381.00
Farm and garden:		
Sale of hogs	\$1,419.64	
,, " cream	530.80	
,, " eggs	405.17	
,, " poultry	286.02	
,, " 1 bull	176.80	
,, " hides	16.15	
Hog subsidies	47.50	
Refund on fertilizer	<u>22.00</u>	<u>2,843.88</u>
Estimated value of food raised	\$ 7,215.33	
Estimated value of feed and grain	<u>4,534.00</u>	11,749.33
Other sources:		
Grant for night watchman	240.00	
From Dept. - repairs	20.25	
From staff - telephone, etc.	19.04	
War Savings	<u>12.00</u>	<u>281.29</u>
		37, 535.27

DISBURSEMENTS:

Salaries	9,834.97	
Clothing	2,234.74	
Food purchased	3,202.24	
,, raised	<u>7,215.33</u>	10,417.57
Phone, fuel, light, water	2,724.21	
Buildings and repairs	296.27	
House equipment	1,438.54	
Farm and garden -		
bought	4,895.97	
raised	<u>4,534.00</u>	9,429.97
Transportation	674.15	
Extra labour	617.68	
Miscellaneous	252.85	
Debit balance, April 1, 1942	477.38	
,, " March 31, 1943		<u>863.06</u>
		\$38,398.33
		\$38, 398.33

TABLE IX
PUPILS OF MT. ELGIN RESIDENTIAL SCHOOL
- by Agencies

Agency	Year		
	1942	1943	1945
Caradoc Agency	66	55	46
Moraviantown Agency	3	2	1
Walpole Island	5	5	5
Sarnia (Sarnia & Kettle Pt.)	31	29	22
Cape Croker Agency	13	12	13
Christian Island	8	7	10
Caughnawaga	1	1	2
New Credit	0	1	1
Saugeen	12	4	0
Six Nations	14	11	0
Parry Sound	3	3	2
Totals	156	130	102

can be sent who are in need of material care, or who are thought to be delinquents. This attitude has tended to lead some residential schools away from their true purpose, which is primarily educational, and into a morass from which they may not be able to extricate themselves. If the residential schools can be made really "educational institutions," it will no longer be a question of either one type or another, but of one type and the other working in the closest harmony. To present the evidence upon which this judgment is based is one purpose of the chapters which follow.

CHAPTER VII

THE INADEQUACY OF THE SCHOOLS

If the work of the schools is to be evaluated there must be some standard of reference with which to compare it. To some extent it will be measured by the best objectives of modern education, but it will be more practical at this point to make the comparison with the rural schools of Ontario, in which the conditions are quite similar, and for which considerable data are available in the Annual Report of the Minister of Education for Ontario (11). The similarity is true with respect to the teachers, who have received the same training; to the curriculum; and, to a great extent, to the buildings and equipment. In the case of the residential school there are, of course, obvious differences, so that it will be necessary to make special reference to it in most matters.

In using the data for rural schools in the whole of Ontario, it should be borne in mind that this includes many outlying isolated areas in which conditions are less favourable than in the reserves being studied here. A fairer comparison would be with the Indian schools of all Ontario, for which details are given in the comparative tables (see Tables X and XI). For the most part, the reserves are quite compact, and distances from school are less than in many school sections in Ontario. On the other hand there are differences in background, in economic conditions, and in the prestige of education in the minds of the people. In the light of these and other considerations, it seems reasonable to expect results in the schools of these reserves at least equal to those of rural Ontario. To the extent that the results in Ontario fall below one's expectations (e.g., in the 1942 Report of the Minister of Education, 49.2 per cent left elementary schools without High School entrance), the effectiveness of the Indian schools, when measured in terms of objectives, will be still less satisfactory.

A more meaningful comparison is made with the day schools on the Six Nations Reserve at Brantford, where the results are such as to refute any suggestion that failure is due to the fact that the people are Indians. While there are differences in the people of the reserves, these differences need not prevent an effective educational programme but will rather be greatly influenced by such a programme. The results which have been

TABLE X
 A COMPARISON OF ENROLMENT, ATTENDANCE AND
 PERCENT OF ENROLMENT IN GRADES I AND II
 At 4-year intervals, 1931-1943

SCHOOLS	1931		1935		1939		1943	
	Enrol- ment	Percent Attend.	Enrol- ment	Percent Attend.	Enrol- ment	Percent Attend.	Enrol- ment	Percent Attend.
Indian Day Schools (Ontario)	2689	64.5	41.5	14.6	2904	63.3	42.3	13.7
Indian Day Schools (West. Ont.)	389	64.8	42.9	14.7	403	74.4	42.7	15.6
Indian Day Schools (Six Nations)	526	63.6	27.0	15.2	556	66.1	27.5	13.3
Mohawk Institute (Brantford)	162	83.3	10.4	11.2	148	94.5	15.5	12.2
Mt. Elgin Residential (Muncey)	167	88.6	20.9	12.6	158	97.4	20.2	6.3
Rural Public of Ontario	87.5	22.5	13.7	89.1	20.7	12.2	87.0	18.4
							13.0	13.0
							85.5	18.1
							13.2	

TABLE XI

STATISTICS FOR INDIAN DAY AND RESIDENTIAL SCHOOLS OF ONTARIO

Year	No. of Schools	Number on Roll		Average Attendance.	Percent Attendance.	Grades							
						I		II		III		IV	
		Boys	Girls	Total	Total	II	III	III	IV	IV	V	V	VI
1923	81	1,434	1,337	2,771	1,443	52.18	1,373	457	489	269	163	20	
1927	75	1,325	1,264	2,589	1,458	58.32	1,133	479	441	318	173	46	
1931	83	1,367	1,322	2,689	1,737	64.59	1,117	392	345	309	286	81	5
1935	82	1,474	1,430	2,904	1,849	63.67	1,230	399	377	286	273	110	13
1939	82	1,484	1,482	2,916	1,998	67.85	1,143	453	343	271	277	154	3
1943	82	1,142	1,264	2,406	1,678	69.74	712	425	315	257	266	144	20
1923	11	524	532	1,056	904	85.31	371	167	203	175	84	56	
1927	12	524	582	1,106	1,008	91.11	367	175	313	179	104	66	
1931	13	689	812	1,501	1,295	86.27	519	233	194	171	133	105	19
1935	13	743	815	1,558	1,443	92.31	462	202	208	171	189	83	22
1939	13	811	919	1,730	1,551	89.35	574	253	197	149	185	104	28
1943	13	785	871	1,636	1,502	91.80	408	276	258	223	165	126	16

accomplished on the Six Nations Reserve — where an impressive number of educated, cultured people have entered most of the professions, and where the elementary schools are effectively staffed by their own people — can be achieved on the reserves being studied here. In the opinion of the writer the time has come when the objectives for these people, and the means of attaining them, should be raised to compare with the best in the Dominion.

Little attention can be given to the accomplishments of the schools, although they are considerable in view of the difficulties involved. The writer could pay a real tribute to the teachers and others engaged in the education of the people of these reserves, but must forego this pleasure, on the assumption that the more profitable study will be concerned with the points at which improvement can be made - the failures or inadequacies of the system. To this end, the present chapter presents various tables of data, and with a minimum of comment. Discussion of the causes of the conditions will be left for Chapter VIII.

The weaknesses are most readily seen in a failure to make normal progress from grade to grade (retardation) and in a consequent overageness. The effect of these two, which interact upon each other, is that pupils leave school before completing their elementary school education - quite commonly when still in Grade IV or V. It is truly pathetic to see so many big girls and boys putting in their time at work below their ability and interests. It is almost impossible to keep such young people in the day school until the legal leaving age of sixteen years, much less to anticipate any secondary school training. If the Indian youth are to have a fair opportunity in the world of tomorrow, it is absolutely essential that they be enabled to make better progress at the elementary school level.

The term "retardation" as here used does not refer to a policy of non-promotion, but to the fact of failure to advance from grade to grade at the normal rate (one year: one grade), which results in a "piling up" of the pupils in the lower grades. This condition is revealed in Figures 3, 4 and 5 and in Tables X and XI. It will be seen that real progress has been made in the past ten years in the area being studied, but that this advantage has been lost during the war years. The over-loading of the primary grades is a serious handicap to the teacher of a one-room school and seriously jeopardizes the work of the higher grades. For example, on visiting one of the schools, the writer found forty pupils representing all the grades, and with twenty-one of those present in Grade I. Among these twenty-one were great

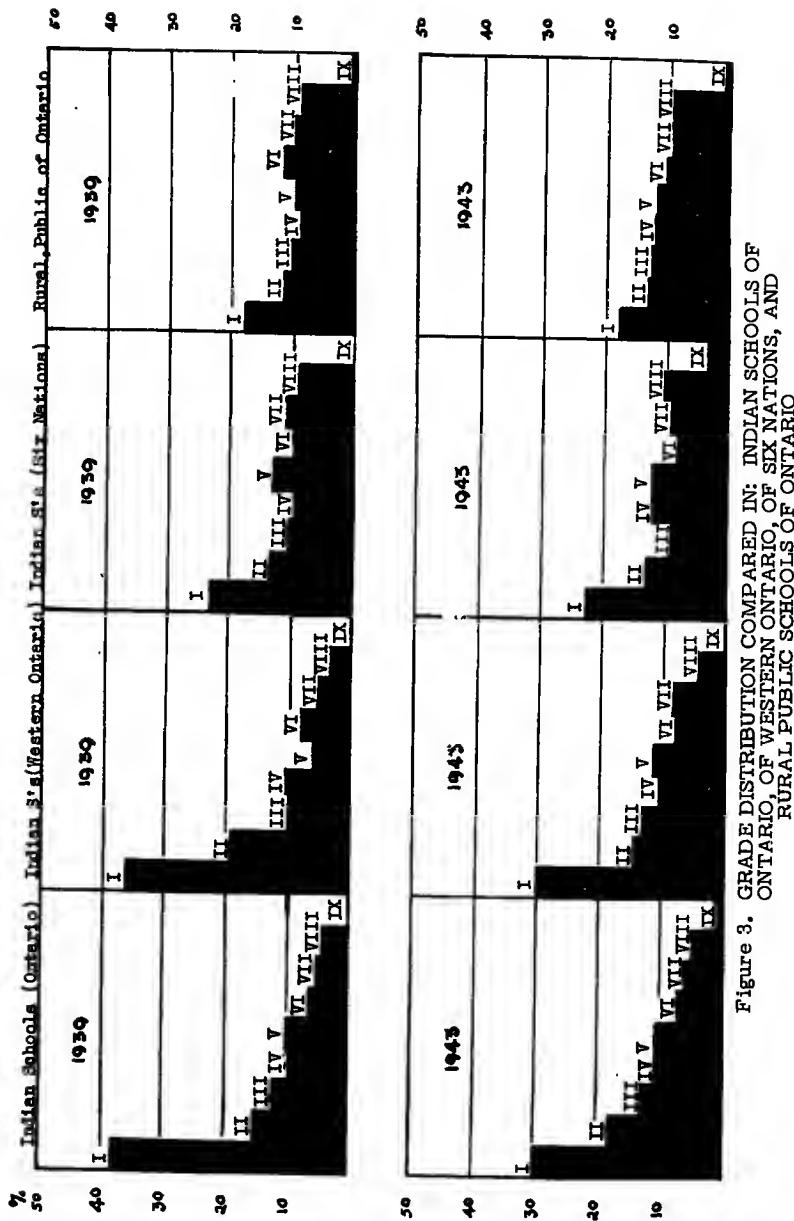


Figure 3. GRADE DISTRIBUTION COMPARED IN: INDIAN SCHOOLS OF ONTARIO, OF WESTERN ONTARIO, OF SIX NATIONS, AND RURAL PUBLIC SCHOOLS OF ONTARIO

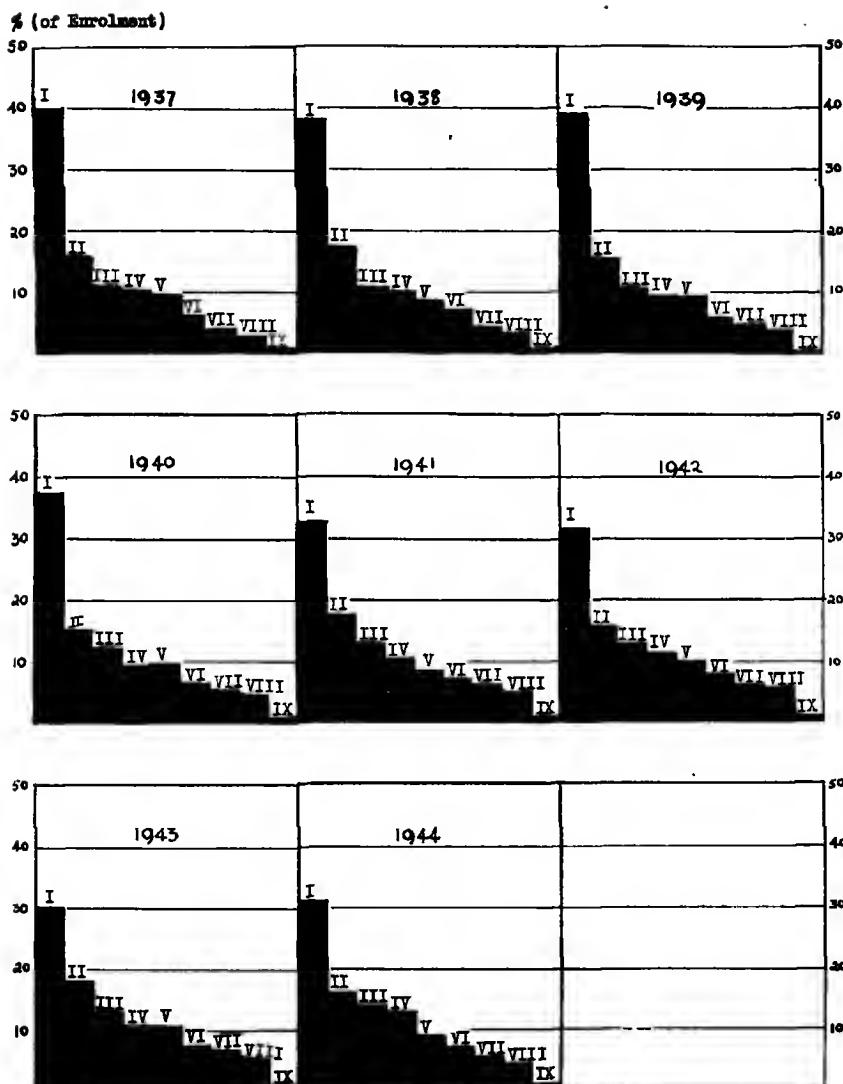


Figure 4. GRADE DISTRIBUTION IN INDIAN DAY SCHOOLS IN ONTARIO

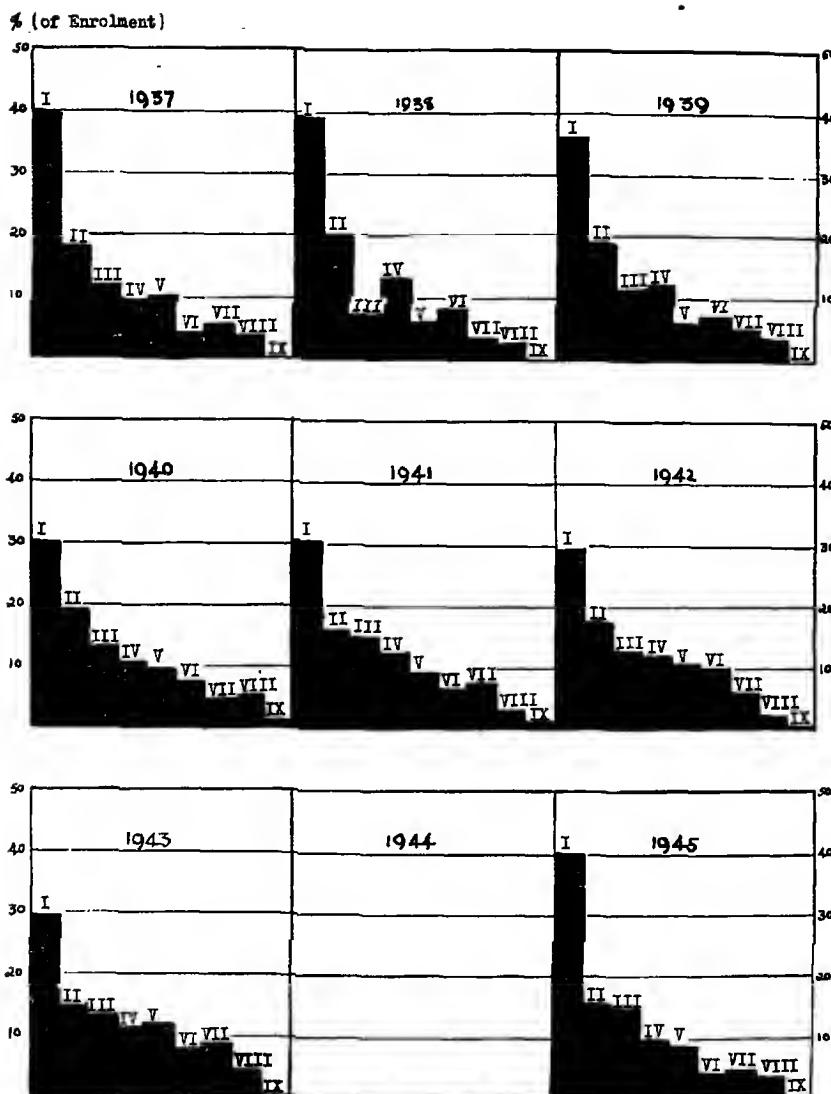


Figure 5. GRADE DISTRIBUTION IN INDIAN DAY SCHOOLS OF
WESTERN ONTARIO

individual differences, so that a variety of groupings was necessary for the different subjects. Obviously, a teacher could spend full time on only the primary grades in such a school, yet such was not possible.

In the interpretation of the following figures, one factor should be mentioned - Grade I includes all children up to and including Grade I, i.e., Beginners, Primary, etc., there being no kindergarten as such. In view of this fact, the data for Ontario public schools also include all pupils in or below Grade I.

Overageness

In estimating the extent to which a pupil is "overage," it is assumed that the present eight-grade system has as an objective the completion of the required work of one grade each year. The age-grade distribution in Ontario rural schools (Table XIII) shows where the majority of the pupils are to be found. While in Grade I they are almost equally divided between the ages of six and seven years, beginning with Grade II the largest number in each grade are in the centre square of the three squares enclosed by heavy lines for that grade. That is to say, the normal age-grade in May is taken to be - Grade I, 7 years; Grade II, 8 years . . . up to Grade VIII, 14 years. In practice, the pupil who passes his Entrance before he is fourteen years of age is considered "accelerated", the pupil who passes it after that age is "retarded". In reality this standard is somewhat arbitrary, since a true application of the terms would take account of the starting age. In this respect, the pupils on our reserves, 64.15 per cent of whom started at six years or younger, might be expected to be more advanced by a year. For the present, however, the norm indicated above will serve.

Table VII gives the age-grade distribution, by Indian schools, for the area; Table XII gives the details in a form more easily compared with Table XIII for Ontario. From Table XII one can determine the number of each age in each grade, and how they are scattered. The tendency to overageness is immediately noticeable in the numbers to the right of the heavy lines, and by the very few on the left. For example, a glance at Grade VI reveals that there are none below age 12, nine of 12 years, nine of 13 years, and twelve above 13 years of age. Or one can find the grade distribution of all 12-year-olds, — one in Grade VII, nine in Grade VI (normal), thirteen in Grade V, twenty-one in grades below V. Table XII should need no further explanation; it can scarcely fail to establish the fact that the pupils are con-

TABLE XII

AGE-GRADE DISTRIBUTION OF PUPILS
 Indian Day Schools of Western Ontario (D) and Mt. Elgin
 Residential School, Muncey (R) May, 1945

		5 Years		6 Years		7 Years		8 Years		9 Years		10 Years		11 Years		12 Years		13 Years		14 Years		15 Years		16 Years		Totals		
		D	R	D	R	D	R	D	R	D	R	D	R	D	R	D	R	D	R	D	R	D	R	D	R	D	R	
Beginners (After Easter)	Boys	2		10		1																					13	
	Girls	4		9		2																					17	
Grade I	Boys	1		4		3		21		26		1		5		1		4		5		2		1			67	
	Girls	1		8		3		27		1		18		4		2		1		7		1		1			67	
Grade II	Boys																										35	
	Girls																										35	
Grade III	Boys																										34	
	Girls																										34	
Grade IV	Boys																										25	
	Girls																										25	
Grade V	Boys																										22	
	Girls																										22	
Grade VI	Boys																										29	
	Girls																										29	
Grade VII	Boys																										28	
	Girls																										28	
Grade VIII	Boys																										10	
	Girls																										10	
Grade VIII	Boys																										12	
	Girls																										12	
Totals	Boys	3		14		3		22		33		2		23		5		18		3		25		3		14		482
	Girls	4		1		18		3		31		2		29		2		24		3		18		12		27		268

Solid lines enclose years considered normal for the grade, e.g., Grade III, 8,9 and 10 yrs.

TABLE XII
AGE-GRADE DISTRIBUTION IN RURAL SCHOOLS OF ONTARIO
May 1943

		Under 5	5 years	6 years	7 years	8 years	9 years	10 years	11 years	12 years	13 years	14 years	15 years	16 years	17 years	18 years	Totals
Kindergarten	Boys	30	42	5	2	5	2	5	2	5	2	5	2	5	2	5	62
Kindergarten	Girls	36	28	7	1												72
Kind.-Primary	Boys	2	370	498	49	7	3	2	1								932
Kind.-Primary	Girls	324	482	43	11	1											871
Grads I	Boys	10	620	6,141	5,953	1,997	447	187	78	35	25	5	3	1		1	15,703
Grads I	Girls	12	947	5,720	5,125	1,492	287	94	35	20	7	5	2				15,746
Grads II	Boys	8	349	3,516	4,998	2,027	873	235	91	59	13	4	1				12,274
Grads II	Girls	14	451	3,944	4,236	1,261	453	110	44	26	8	2					10,531
Grade III	Boys	10	595	5,086	4,460	2,185	937	347	135	40	4	4	1				11,799
Grade III	Girls	5	535	3,621	4,318	1,319	443	169	70	11	4	5					10,500
Grads IV	Boys		6	316	2,354	4,290	2,274	943	382	109	23	2					11,199
Grads IV	Girls		17	572	3,553	3,961	1,504	477	171	57	13						10,325
Grade V	Boys		1	9	478	2,941	3,961	12,227	1,031	307	63	4	3				10,925
Grade V	Girls		26	653	3,456	3,724	1,566	539	129	41	5	1					10,120
Grade VI	Boys		2	16	574	2,824	13,520	1,920	718	154	19						9,857
Grade VI	Girls		4	39	820	3,238	3,364	1,412	429	92	5						9,404
Grade VII	Boys			36	569	3,606	3,163	1,459	387	41	3						8,286
Grade VII	Girls			2	70	858	3,048	2,923	1,133	255	29	9					8,335
Grade VIII	Boys			1	100	985	2,600	2,516	1,226	220	19	1					7,868
Grade VIII	Girls			5	105	1,333	3,203	2,419	942	165	13	1					8,186
Totals	Boys	12	1,228	7,040	10,825	10,417	10,288	10,950	10,998	10,865	9,515	5,167	1,864	288	26	2	88,925
Totals	Girls	12	1,331	6,686	9,671	9,982	10,115	10,038	10,017	10,021	8,335	4,191	1,360	209	25	1	88,090

Solid lines enclose years considered normal for the Grade, E.F., Grade III, 8, 9, and 10 years.

Figures for Auxiliary classes and Grades IX and X omitted. These totalled 2,368.

siderably older for their grade than is necessary if they are to acquire even an elementary school education.

The reader will have deduced that promotion is dependent upon the successful completion of each grade's requirements, although occasionally a pupil is allowed to proceed in the hope of encouraging him. Teachers are, in fact, so instructed, "Do not classify students in advance of their ability. The following rule applies to all teaching: all work must be thoroughly understood before a pupil is advanced to a higher standard." (16). Such instructions constitute a guiding principle which can scarcely be adhered to in all cases.

Details of the age and grade at which the Indian people have been leaving school were difficult to obtain. An attempt was made to have a questionnaire filled in by the adults, but since the writer was unable to explain the matter to each adult personally its purpose was not clearly understood and only sixty were completed. This is considered too few to be reliable. One can reach some conclusions from Table XII. Inasmuch as pupils do not remain in school beyond sixteen years of age, or even fourteen in many cases, it is obvious that many will drop out before completing the work of the elementary grades. The only data which can be submitted are the facts for the school year 1944-45, - the number who dropped out of the schools of this area during the school year, and those who did not return in the fall of 1945. These are given in Table XIV.

In the above Table, the Grade stated is that in which the pupil was enrolled in May 1945. These figures do not include a considerable number who were not attending school, particularly at Sarnia and Oneida, who were in lower grades, but were absent because there was insufficient accommodation. At Sarnia, a second room was being prepared; at Oneida, school Number 3 was closed for need of a teacher, most of its pupils being enrolled in the other two schools or at the residential school.

Note should be taken also, in Table XII, of the rapidity with which the boys fall behind and drop out. Many of these are young men at fourteen years and can earn a man's wages, e.g. a boy can be his father's team-mate in the bush. What attendance officer could conscientiously compel such a boy to remain in school with small children, doing work which, to him, is meaningless and having no relationship to his felt needs? One more aspect of the problem, - many of the older girls expressed the ambition to become teachers or nurses, etc., yet were retarded by two or more years and will never stay in school to accomplish their purpose. Those two lost years make the difference between an education and the lack of it; for some it means the loss of the

broader training of Grades VII and VII, for others the loss of High School or Vocational School training. The elementary schools must correct this condition and enable pupils of sufficient learning capacity to make normal progress.

TABLE XIV
PUPILS WHO DROPPED OUT OF SCHOOL
1944-45

Highest grade attended	Dropped out between November and May	Failed to return in September 1945
Grade V	G-13*; G-15, G-15 B-15*	
Grade VI	G-12	B-13, G-15, G-16, G-18 B-16
Grade VII	B-16	G-13, G-14, G-15, B-15 B-15, B-16
Grade VIII	G-14, G-15, G-16 G-16	G-15, B-15, G-16, B-16
Totals	Girls - 8 Boys - 2	Girls - 8 Boys - 7

* G-13 = girl, aged 13 years.
B-15 = boy, aged 15 years.

Mt. Elgin Indian Residential School.

By reference to Tables VII, X, XI, and XII, comparison can be made between the day and residential schools. On the whole the age-grade distribution is much the same in both. A much lower percentage of pupils is found in Grade I in the residential school, but this is due in part to the fact that many of the pupils started in the day schools and entered Mt. Elgin at some later date. A very brief summary of the advantages and disad-

vantages of the residential school may be in order at this point, based upon the writer's close association with the school over a ten-year period and upon peace-time conditions rather than the abnormal conditions of the war years. (See again the Report of the United Church Commission, 45).

Advantages. Educationally, - grades were divided among three classrooms, with more specialized instruction. Practical training was provided; for the boys in shopwork, dairying, gardening, poultry, animal and field husbandry, and shoe-repairing; for the girls in dietetics, serving of meals, housework, sewing, laundry, and music. Until curtailed by the war, instruction was given in special crafts, such as weaving and copper work. Attendance was more regular than it would have been on the reserve (Table X). Physically, - the pupils received a splendid foundation for later life, the product of regular hours, wholesome meals with an abundance of dairy and garden products, and prompt care by a resident nurse and doctor. Morally, - the pupils were in the care of devoted workers, and the school was operated as a Christian institution. Any criticism to the contrary, Mt. Elgin Residential School has made a significant contribution to the life of the Indian people.

Disadvantages. Too many of the pupils have been very young children who should have been at home, and who added to the burden of work of the school. This has meant that the work of the farm and the school has been too heavy for the few bigger boys and girls. Under the necessity of financing the school on an insufficient per capita grant, the educational purpose of the work has too often been submerged in the drive to get the work done. The farm work has been largely mechanized, but the maintenance of the school buildings has required too much drudgery on the part of the girls. Too large a proportion of the pupils have been delinquents or problem children, which has created many problems for the staff and proven an unwholesome influence on other children in the school. Children sent under compulsion and kept by compulsion under a necessary discipline which is very strange to them, resent the school and look upon it as a jail.

Too little time is available for an adequate programme of sports and recreation; there is no "school spirit." There is no provision for schooling beyond Grade VIII; not sufficient inducement for young people to remain beyond the legal limit of sixteen years; almost no follow-up or placement after leaving school. The residential school is too paternalistic, doing for the people of this area what they are now able to do for themselves. In common with other schools of its kind, the training offered is not always shaped by the actual needs of the young people in their life situation. From the standpoint of the Department it is too

expensive. In 1932, when the enrolment in day and residential schools in Canada was almost equal (Table I), the expenditure per pupil for all Canada amounted to \$41.30 in the day schools, \$188.18 in the residential schools.

The school has a long and honourable record of service to the Indian people; the writer has a profound respect for those who have served in it through the years. The criticisms here offered are made, not so much with the past in mind as with the future. In view of the changing, emerging needs of the Indian people of this area, the Mt. Elgin Indian Residential School, as at present constituted and operated, is totally inadequate to the situation, and unless steps are taken to bring it into line with present needs, its value as an educational institution will steadily diminish even though it can obtain sufficient children from homes which are unable or unwilling to provide for them. The Department is averse to continuing the school in the latter capacity. There is nothing to be gained by ignoring the handwriting on the wall.

CHAPTER VIII

FACTORS CONTRIBUTING TO THE INADEQUACY OF THE SCHOOLS

For convenience, the factors which have impaired the effectiveness of the Indian schools in this area will be considered under three main headings, - those in: (1) The Schools, (2) The Pupils, (3) The Supervision. A few items do not properly belong to any of these, while others are concerned with several or all of them. An example of the latter is the factor of attendance. In the main, conditions follow a fairly definite pattern throughout the various schools, so that it will not be necessary to direct criticism at specific persons or schools, but rather at conditions as a whole.

1. In the Schools. The School must accept the primary responsibility for success or failure in education, and must submit to the first scrutiny for two reasons. First, the most significant weaknesses are in the schools; second, it is in the schools that officialdom has the power and opportunity to make such changes as will profoundly influence the pupils, the home and the community.

(a) The Teacher makes the school after her own image. A really good teacher with adequate training will create an effective situation for the guidance of learning in spite of inadequate equipment or curriculum. The personality of the teacher is reflected in the pupils; her ideals and character, whether noble or otherwise, will leave an indelible impression on their minds. The crux of the problem is to be found here. The teachers have been doing what they were trained to do, and doing it zealously, but with a growing sense of failure and frustration. The training of teachers in Ontario is in need of revision. A one year's course at Normal School is insufficient; the training is principally in devices and techniques plus the mastery of subject-matter; the psychology of learning has not yet been given its true place. Teachers go out armed with a mass of subject-matter to be taught and carefully prepared formulae for "making it stick," but with little knowledge of the understandings and principles basic to the learning process.

In addition to these deficiencies in their "basic training," teachers who accept positions in Indian schools are not prepared for the problems peculiar to work among the Indians, but are plunged into an unfamiliar situation in which they frequently antagonize their pupils and "get off on the wrong foot." It is not that Indians are so different, but that their reactions are more pronounced when subjected to the repressive, authoritarian methods of the traditional, formal method of teaching. The unnatural restriction of movement in rows of immovable seats, the "sepulchral quiet of formal discipline," the monotonous routine of "copy, memorize, recite," conspire to prevent learning on the part of Indian children who are accustomed to complete freedom. Dickie's description of the situation is no exaggeration, (17, pp. 364-5):

All God's chillun got wings', but wings are soon clipped, by restriction, repression. He must use certain media to express himself. Failure leads to bewilderment, fear, worry, emotional disturbances.

"It is in creating, in constructing, that we learn. In creation we express our learnings, and in doing so absorb them, make them part of ourselves.

"The formal school day moves from drill to drill. The teacher sets the model, the children repeat it all day long. There is not time for anyone to invite his soul; the pleasure of creation is forgotten, the habit of it is lost. Division I loves rhythm, poetry, music; Division II thinks these are 'sissy'; Division III giggles self-consciously at any form of self-expression. The super-imposed routine, the daily grind of facts, does its work remorselessly. One by one the fairy gifts fade; the plumes fall; 'Adults are in the main wingless.'

There is most interesting evidence available on the effect of various types of classroom procedure on the pupils (20). The autocratic or authoritarian method results in "hostility and aggression or apathy. The laissez-faire groups were typically dull, lifeless or submissive." Many good teachers have been superior to their training, however, and by a fine understanding of children, by being a "guide rather than a director of the educational process" (32) have created a school atmosphere conducive to real learning.

There are few inducements for teachers to work on the reserves, with the result that they are recruited in a somewhat haphazard fashion, often at the suggestion of some politically influential person, and they seldom remain when an opportunity for a change presents itself. As a rule, the Indian schools are stepping-stones for teachers, unless they are geographically convenient. Salaries have been only fair, though with less fluctuation than in Ontario schools (for the most part they have hovered around the \$900-\$1000 mark, with cost of living bonus during the war years). There has been no salary schedule or increase for experience; teachers in Indian schools are not admitted to membership in the Provincial Pension scheme; opportunities for social activities are limited. The frequent change of teachers has a disturbing influence on the pupils. It has been possible for a mediocre teacher to become a permanent fixture. This matter will be discussed further under "supervision."

Too often the net result of all these conditions is that the teacher, when faced with a class of Indian children, is at first puzzled by their failure to respond, then annoyed and finally discouraged. She concludes the children are "stupid" or "hopeless," and teacher and pupils put in the days in an atmosphere of frustration and defeatism, which may only be relieved by preparations for Christmas and the picnic in June. The more advanced stages of the disease have here been described, - while none of the schools could be described in such a fashion, symptoms of the disease are found in varying stages of development in all of them.

One other failure on the part of teachers must be noted. Very few make any real attempt to identify themselves with the life of the people. This is understandable. But the teacher has something very vital in common with the parents, namely, the children, her pupils. The teacher with a knowledge of psychology and a pupil-centred approach would find the answer to many of her problems in the homes and attitudes of the parents. Any white person must break down a barrier of suspicion and distrust toward himself on the part of the Indian people, before he can hope to accomplish anything in their behalf. Few teachers have succeeded in doing this. The cost is high, but the reward would be proportionately great.

(b) The Curriculum of the Province of Ontario is accepted for the Indian schools within the province. Special emphasis has been placed upon practical training in recognition of the Indians' aptitudes and needs.

Teachers are expected to emphasize the importance of vocational instruction. Dressmaking, crochet work, knitting, hand-loom weaving, elementary domestic science and gardening are recommended for girls, and elementary carpentry work, Indian handicraft and gardening for boys. At Residential schools the care of livestock, auto mechanics and cultivation of land should be emphasized. (From the school register).

Such a programme has been possible in the residential school, but in the day schools, most of them one-room schools, it has been an added burden in an already crowded curriculum. The teachers have striven valiantly, with inadequate preparation, to add one activity after another to the course, while trying to maintain the regular curriculum in all the grades. Their failure

is largely due to the fact that these are "extras" instead of an integral part of the curriculum, as they would be in a modern activity programme.

In recent years the Department has prepared a series of training courses in practical arts (woodwork, leatherwork, metal-work, poultry, gardening, housework, sewing, knitting, cooking, serving, etc.), each covering a three-year course, for which an attractive badge is provided in each year to the pupil who has satisfactorily covered the work on the job sheet. The plan appears to be well conceived and of practical value in addition to stimulating the interest of the pupils. Unfortunately, in this area, the teachers have done very little with this programme, for lack of understanding of the psychological principles upon which it is based, and through lack of materials and time.

The weaknesses of the curriculum are, in the main, those common to the curriculum in the rural schools of Ontario, which is being carefully investigated and frequently revised. The materials available on this subject are numerous, and will not be repeated here in detail. In general, the curriculum is subject-matter centred, and fails to recognize the interests and experience of the pupils, or their maturity and readiness to learn. It was impossible to carry out the testing necessary to provide the proof of the above statement, but the writer did administer certain tests in reading in the schools, the results of which are summarized here, while the test results are provided in detail in appendices B and C.

Table XV gives a summary of the results on the Dominion Achievement Tests in Silent Reading (12), which were administered during the last two weeks of November 1944. The tests were designed for Primary, Grade I, but were given to Grades II and III as well.

In Grade I, only those pupils who had been attending school since the previous Easter were included, since it was obviously unfair to test beginners so early in the term. Thus pupils in Grade I had presumably had at least six months in the grade, while many had been in the grade one or two years. Type I refers to the simplest test, in "Word Recognition;" Type II carried them into "Phrase and Sentence Reading;" Type III was a test in "Paragraph Reading." Note that age is given thus, 8-1, which signifies eight years, one month; grade standing is given thus, 1.3, which signifies a reading achievement equal to that obtained by the average child at the end of the third month of Grade I. This explanation applies as well to Table XVI which summarizes the results on the Gates Reading Survey Tests. Since the school year is composed of ten months, grades can be given in decimals in this fashion. In Table XV, and again in Table XVI, one notices

TABLE XV
SUMMARY OF RESULTS:
DOMINION ACHIEVEMENT TESTS IN SILENT READING

	Average		Range in Gr.Norms	Q1	Q3
	Age	Gr.Norms			
GRADE I (30 pupils)					
Type I	8-1	1.3	1.0 - 2.8	1.1	1.4
Type II	8-1	1.8	1.4 - 3.0	1.6	1.9
Type III	8-1	1.6	1.0 - 2.4	1.5	2.0
GRADE II (48 pupils)					
Type I	9-4	2.1	1.0 - 3.2	1.5	2.4
Type II	9-4	2.3	1.5 - 3.7	1.8	2.9
Type III	9-4	2.0	1.0 - 3.3	1.5	2.4
GRADE III (45 pupils)					
Type I	10-1	3.0	1.5 - 3.3	2.9	3.2
Type II	10-1	3.3	2.1 - 3.8	3.0	3.7
Type III	10-1	2.9	1.6 - 3.5	2.6	3.3

Type I --- Word Recognition

Type II --- Phrase and Sentence Reading

Type III -- Paragraph Reading

that the pupils measure up fairly well to the grade standing of other Canadian pupils. When the relative ages of the pupils are also considered, this fact indicates that the teachers are following instructions to insist on completion of work before promotion; that is, they may compare well with the norms, but they have been an extra year in the grade. Even so, Grades II and III show some weakness in the comprehension required in Paragraph Reading, Type III. The references to Q1 and Q3 in both Tables indicate the manner in which the grade norms are arranged between the two extremes noted in the range. That is, one-quarter of the scores are of the value of the number stated under Q1, or less; one-quarter are of the value under Q3, or more. The tests were administered and marked by the writer.

TABLE XVI
SUMMARY OF RESULTS: GATES READING SURVEY TESTS

	Grade Scores				Age Scores			
	Av.	Range	Q1	Q3	Av.	Range	Q1	Q3
GRADE 3.9								
Pupils 42								
Average Age, 10-8								
Speed	3.2	1.9-5.8	2.7	3.8	8-9	7-2 to 11-8	8-1	9-4
Comprehension	3.8	2.6-4.8	3.3	4.0	9-4	8-0 " 12-8	8-9	9-8
Vocabulary	3.9	3.0-6.4	3.6	4.1	9-5	8-6 " 12-2	9-1	9-8
Averages	3.6	2.6-6.4	3.2	4.0	9-2	8-0 " 12-2	8-8	9-5
GRADE 4.9								
Pupils 29								
Average Age, 11-4								
Speed	3.4	2.0-5.8	2.5	4.2	8-10	7-3 " 11-2	7-10	9-10
Comprehension	4.1	2.9-7.0	3.3	4.0	9-8	8-5 " 11-8	8-9	10-10
Vocabulary	4.2	2.8-7.4	3.3	4.9	9-10	8-3 " 13-1	8-9	10-8
Averages	3.9	2.7-7.2	3.1	4.7	9-5	8-2 " 12-7	8-7	10-5
GRADE 5.9								
Pupils 44								
Average Age, 12-4								
Speed	4.5	2.4-5.9	3.4	5.0	10-1	7-9 " 12-8	8-4	10-10
Comprehension	4.3	3.9-5.9	4.0	5.1	10-3	8-5 " 12-5	9-8	10-10
Vocabulary	4.7	3.3-6.6	4.1	5.0	10-4	8-9 " 12-4	9-9	10-10
Averages	4.6	3.1-6.7	3.9	5.0	10-3	8-8 " 12-10	9-7	11-1
GRADE 6.9								
Pupils 37								
Average Age, 13-8								
Speed	4.5	1.8-7.7	3.6	5.2	10-1	7-1 " 13-5	9-1	11-6
Comprehension	4.8	3.4-7.8	3.9	5.7	10-5	8-9 " 13-7	9-5	11-4
Vocabulary	5.2	3.8-6.4	4.5	5.9	10-11	9-4 " 12-2	10-3	11-2
Averages	4.8	3.2-6.6	3.9	5.3	10-6	8-9 " 12-5	9-8	11-4
GRADE 7.9								
Pupils 27								
Average Age, 14-8								
Speed	3.0	3.0-8.7	4.5	7.4	11-8	9-1 " 14-5	10-3	13-1
Comprehension	6.0	3.3-8.5	5.0	7.0	11-9	8-9 " 14-3	10-10	12-8
Vocabulary	5.9	3.9-8.8	5.2	6.5	11-8	9-5 " 14-7	11-0	12-2
Averages	3.0	4.3-8.7	5.3	7.7	11-8	9-1 " 14-5	11-0	12-5
GRADE 8.9								
Pupils 25								
Average Age, 15-2								
Speed	6.2	3.2-11.6	4.5	7.4	12-0	8-8 " 17-3	10-10	13-1
Comprehension	6.3	3.5-9.7	5.0	7.5	12-1	9-0 " 15-5	10-8	13-3
Vocabulary	6.5	4.3-9.3	5.5	7.8	12-2	9-10 " 15-0	11-4	13-9
Averages	6.3	4.0-9.3	5.2	7.4	12-1	9-7 " 15-0	11-0	13-2

In the Gates Reading Survey, pupils were rated also on accuracy, based on the work in the Speed Test. The percentage is the number of those items attempted which were correct: the ratings, Very High, High, Medium, Low, Very Low, are in relation to the norms of other pupils for the grade as provided in the test manual. These results are given in Table XVII.

TABLE XVII
ACCURACY RATINGS FROM GATES READING SURVEY TESTS

Grade	Average Per Cent	Range	Q1	Q3	Number in each Rating				
					V-H	H	Med.	Low	V-Low
3	74	46-100	60	88	5	13	0	12	11
4	75	43-100	63	90	2	2	3	7	14
5	87	52-100	82	98	5	0	15	9	15
6	90	60-100	83	97	6	0	2	9	10
7	93	85-100	90	96	3	1	2	8	11
8	94	79-100	90	100	10	1	1	3	10
					31	17	23	48	71

From Table XVI (Gates Reading Survey, 32), it is possible to compare pupils' actual ages with those of pupils elsewhere making the same score, and thus to see their overageness in terms of achievement in the basic subject of reading. A comparison can be made between actual grade level and the grade of other pupils making the same score. In either case the disparity increases as the pupils progress upward in the grades. The Grade is given as 3.9, 4.9, etc., which indicates that the test was taken in the ninth month of the school term, namely, May 1945. Data for the correlation between the norms of the Gates Reading Survey and the Canadian results were not available, but from a comparison of other tests, it has been generally found that Canadian pupils obtain results at least as high as those in the United States. At any rate, the difference is too slight to affect the conclusions drawn from the survey.

From the results of the above tests and from observation in the work of the schools it is not unfair to say that for the Indian schools, insufficient emphasis is placed in the Ontario curriculum

upon reading and a mastery of English to overcome Indian pupils' handicap in vocabulary and language usage. It is the writer's opinion that this handicap, when not corrected in the early grades, makes itself felt throughout the entire curriculum. While the objectives are much the same in Indian and white schools, and therefore a similar course of study is indicated, allowance must be made for a difference in background, experience and vocabulary. Even of white schools it has been stated, "The most potent cause of retardation is to be found in the character of the curriculum . . . " (7).

One of the most obvious consequences of an unsuitable course of study is the difficulty of interesting pupils in the work of later grades, and the resulting drop-out all along the line. This weakness has been recognized by many educational leaders and has been corrected by some. Even this weakness in curriculum can be largely corrected by a teacher who knows the needs of her pupils and has the ability to relate all subjects to those needs.

When visiting the one-room schools it is impossible to avoid the conviction that one teacher cannot do justice to eight grades plus a group of young beginners. When, added to this, she is expected to adhere rather strictly to the present system of grading, the teacher is compelled to rely on a carefully systematized routine of classes, using the lecture method and a rapid succession of very brief periods of instruction, to "get over the ground." The principal objective is to get pupils through the Entrance examinations (end of Grade VIII), which is at best an artificial objective for many pupils who have no concern with an academic education, and which proves too high a hurdle for most of them. While it is true that most of those who try the Entrance examinations are successful, the majority of the pupils evade the test, and drop out rather than attempt it. It is therefore a deterrent rather than an objective for a large number of Indian pupils. The controversial question of methods of promotion cannot be discussed here, but some reference to it will be found in the next chapter.

As a part of a curriculum, athletics, physical culture, and sports were regrettably lacking, even in the residential school. Tremendous possibilities are overlooked in this respect. The importance of instruction in music has not yet been recognized, although several teachers have been giving piano lessons, and most of the schools have, on their own initiative, secured either a piano or organ. The aptitude of Indian people for choral work is marked; efforts to secure the services of a teacher of music to visit the schools have, however, so far failed.

Further criticism of the details of the curriculum will serve no useful purpose, especially in view of the paucity of reliable data in the possession of the writer. Positive suggestions are provided in Chapter IX.

(c) Suitable equipment is of vital importance. Mention has already been made of the type of buildings, the insufficient light, the stationary seating, and heating with stoves in most of the schools. To condemn these things is to condemn a large proportion of the rural schools of Ontario, yet it is recognized to-day that these conditions exist, and that they affect both the pupils' health and their ability to learn.

In the typical rural elementary school, however, the classrooms leave much to be desired. The classroom is almost a mere box, heated in winter by a crude stove. Hygienic conditions are primitive, even if they exist at all, and drinking water is brought in a pail from an adjoining farmhouse. One less well prepared and experienced teacher of eighteen or nineteen years of age teaches from four to ten grades, spreading the five or six hours of the day over all and instructing each grade for perhaps forty or fifty minutes only each day. She receives a salary of six hundred dollars for a ten months' term. She has never attended a summer school and reads no professional books or magazines. The number of subjects offered is limited by the number of pupils in the school and the capacities of one teacher. Sanitary conditions are often disgusting. Though vacant lots often adjoin the school, no use is made of them for health or athletic purposes. Clubs are practically unknown. (5, p. 16).

Conditions in the Indian schools are considerably better than those described above, at least in the personnel, salary, and playgrounds. The old type of school is admittedly an uninteresting place in which to spend so much of one's childhood. One can hope that as and when these older schools are replaced it will be with buildings which will be conducive to a healthy, happy atmosphere for growing children.

Instructional equipment is all supplied by the Department — text-books, work-books and pencils. In most cases the schools have a fairly good supply of books for "supplementary reading." The teachers experience considerable difficulty in obtaining supplies promptly and in sufficient quantity, especially of kindergarten-primary materials. When, however, there is concerted action on the part of teachers and Inspector in convention, and agreement as to the best materials, they are forthcoming (e.g., in 1944, a new set of Pre-Primers was requested and supplied). Manual activities have been gaining ground, promoted by a special grant for tools and supplies. An interesting experiment was tried in the Oneida schools in 1943-44, when the boys

of the three schools came together for woodwork, pooling their tools and grants, and being given a special grant of fifty dollars to equip the basement of the new Number 1 school. Results were encouraging and proved at least the greater interest of the boys in practical training. The school at Moraviantown is also doing this work in the basement, but most of the schools carry on under great difficulties in a crowded room. Nevertheless this work has been popular, and the pupils have made a good showing at the annual Fall Fairs, the girls with quilts, knitting, art, and penmanship, the boys with wood work and nature study exhibits.

Playground equipment was conspicuously lacking; it seems quite impossible to keep the pupils supplied with baseballs, etc. There is an opportunity here for the pupils or the community to assume some responsibility instead of waiting for requisitions to come through. It is admitted that the children are destructive of such things, and officials weary of replacing them, but there is need of materials enough to promote enthusiastic play and prevent apathetic loitering.

The usual visual aids such as maps, charts, posters, bulletin boards, have been put to good use, but as yet the modern use of sound film or even the filmstrip or reflectoscope are little more than a teacher's dream. The lack of electric power is a great disadvantage in this respect, though not an insuperable barrier to the use of some types of projector (see Ch. IX).

The teacher's task is an exacting and difficult one at best; she needs not only good training but good tools, the best equipment available for the situation. The failures of the school, whether the teacher, the curriculum, or the equipment, are quickly reflected in the pupils, in lack of interest or rebellion, in absenteeism or lack of co-operation. When the school is in top form the retardation and poor attendance are also corrected. (See record of Six Nations Schools, Table X; Figure 3. The opinion just expressed is that of the best teachers in the Six Nations schools).

2. In the Pupils.

(a) The greatest single cause of retardation, in the opinion of the teachers, is the poor attendance of the pupils. This is readily understood if reference is made to Table X, where the percentage of attendance is given as 68.8 for 1943 in the day schools. Even this would be lower if it were based on the number

who ought to be on the roll rather than on the number on a roll which undergoes revisions from quarter to quarter. The writer has personal knowledge of young people who had not attended school at all, and could speak no English. In some areas the attendance is so irregular that teachers become discouraged.

In considering the factors which lead to poor attendance, it will be seen that the school, the home, the community and supervising officials all share the responsibility. The most obvious of these factors are:

(i) Lack of incentive or motivation in the pupil. As was suggested in the discussion on curriculum, this is largely in the hands of the teacher and her adaptation of the curriculum. The work expected of pupils is frequently too difficult, and fails to permit the success and satisfaction necessary to continued effort; pupils are unable to see any relationship between their studies and their life needs; the old type of school has not yet replaced passive receptivity by active participation.

(ii) Lack of support on the part of the home and community. Many parents are not convinced of the value of an education for their children. Some are unwilling to risk the gulf which may result between parents and educated children; others have reason to doubt the practical value in terms of future employment. Moreover, the whole idea of education, as applied, is the white man's idea - let him see to it — there is little sense of responsibility on the part of the home and community in the work of the schools. These things being so, parents keep children home on the slightest provocation, to help at home, to go to the store, or to do any simple chores. Some of these duties are unfairly placed upon children by parents who shirk their own responsibilities, but it is also true that conditions in the home really do make school attendance very difficult at times. Children do have to help at home, to mind smaller children while mother goes to work; to get the wood and water while father is away in the bush. Poor roads, bad weather, insufficient clothing, sickness, inadequate lunches — there are many legitimate reasons for poor attendance.

The effect of these can be seen in Figure 6 which reveals the effect of winter weather on attendance. It shows also that the little folk, who could best be excused, are the most regular; they like school, not having been anaesthetized as yet by the routine of school life. Graphs similar to those used in Figure 6 were constructed for all the day schools, but since there were gaps in some when the school was closed, only two are reproduced. These two are quite typical of all, and are based on actual attendance records

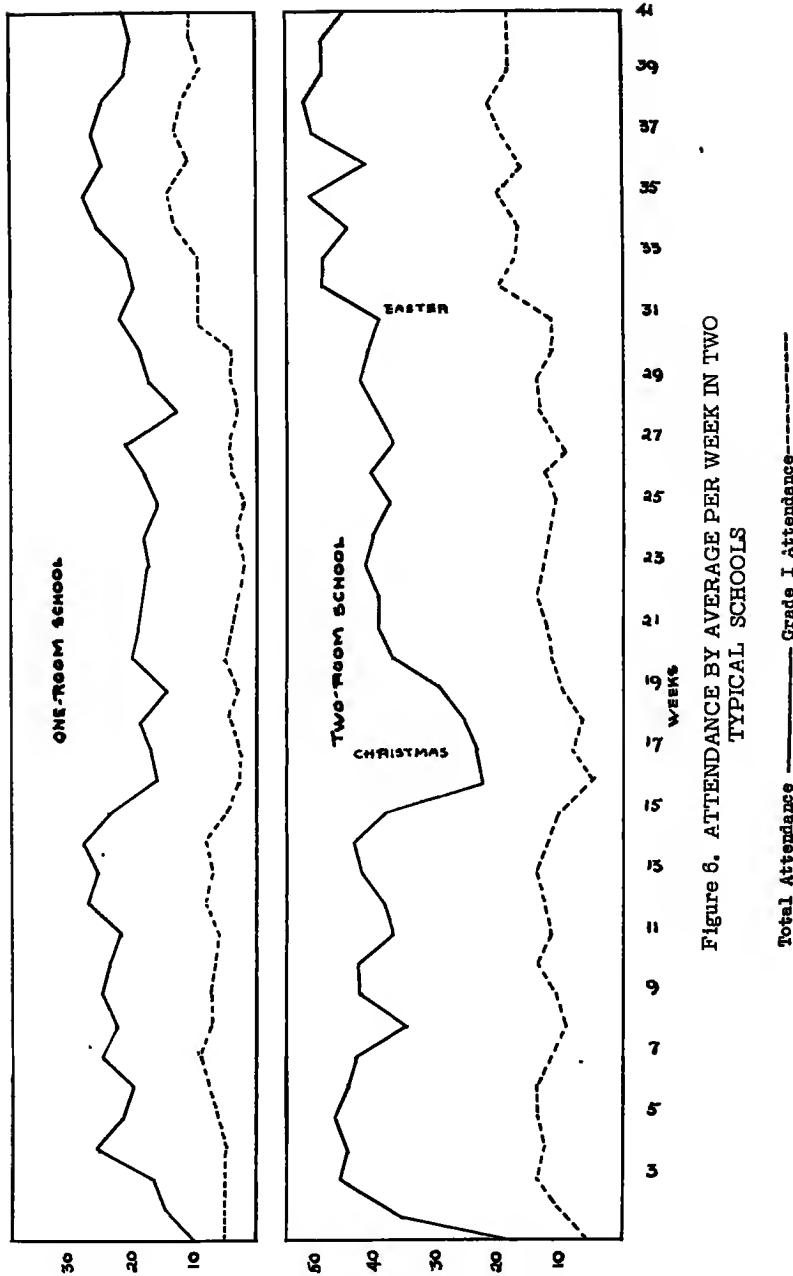


Figure 6. ATTENDANCE BY AVERAGE PER WEEK IN TWO TYPICAL SCHOOLS

Total Attendance ——— Grade I Attendance -----

for the school year 1943-44.

(iii) Economic conditions. The enforced nomadic manner of life of the Indians of some of the reserves, which takes them long distances from home in search of employment, often involves taking the family along. Some of the children attend the nearby schools, but even these are handicapped by frequent changes. Failing resources inevitably result in restricted diet, impaired health, clothing which is unsuitable for bad weather. The irregularity of many homes, with consequent lack of proper sleep for young children, leaves pupils tired and unequal to the demands of school life. What appears as indifference or laziness on the part of pupils is sometimes lack of energy due to faulty diet and insufficient sleep. Undoubtedly the schools have their quota of children with faulty eyesight and hearing, though no tests were made of these factors. Such adverse conditions have shown remarkable improvement in recent years due to employment and good wages, but there is little assurance that this will continue indefinitely. If the pupils are to make normal progress they must be at school regularly. This will require a greater measure of co-operation between the school and the home.

(b) Lack of ability resulting in failure. Table XVIII provides data on the number of promotions in the schools, as between May 1945 and September of the same year. For this Table, reports were obtained from the teachers in October as to the grade standing of all pupils enrolled in May. In the Table, 'No.' indicates the number in the grade in May for whom information was returned (October), and 'P' the number of these who were promoted or passed on to the next grade in September.

TABLE XVIII
PROMOTION AND FAILURE IN THE SCHOOLS, 1945

	Grades																
	1-2	2-3	3-4	4-5	5-6	6-7	7-8	8-Ent.	H.S.								
	No. P.																
Day Schools	128	32	62	42	55	41	38	26	32	25	14	10	18	14	13	3	5
Residential	11	7	11	7	5	5	14	12	19	15	16	13	12	8	14	6	4
Totals	137	39	73	49	60	46	52	38	51	40	30	23	28	22	27	12	9

There was a great deal of shifting of pupils from day school to residential, and vice versa, and at least four changes of teachers, so that pupils were at a disadvantage in the matter of promotion. The figure for Grade I includes pupils at a great variety of stages of "getting started." Quite a number were listed as promoted but on probation; these were included in those promoted. In one school

it was learned that some pupils were promoted at Easter to make way for a new group of beginners - these few will not appear in the table.

Failure may be due to lack of learning capacity on the part of some, though this number is believed to be relatively small. There is every reason to think that the intelligence of the pupils follows the normal curve. This opinion is substantiated by the results of Dr. Jamieson's tests (Ch. III) and by the results of the Reading Tests in Table XVI (see the wide range in the scores). Many Indian pupils are handicapped also by a limited experience, vocabulary, and use of English. The latter condition is rapidly disappearing, and in a few years should no longer give difficulty. Nevertheless, the handicap is a real one for a considerable number of the pupils. Data on their opinions of school subjects are provided in Table XIX, and were obtained through the use of a Pupils' Record Sheet in the day schools. In some schools, all the pupils started life with their own language, though understanding English as well in most cases; other schools have all pupils who know only English; others again are fairly evenly divided between the two types. The question asked concerning the use of the Indian language was whether the pupil could use it when he started to school; only five indicated that they had learned it since coming to school. It is not difficult to imagine the difficulties teachers encounter when there are such individual differences in their pupils. Apart from the language difficulties, it will be recognized that many parents who use English have a limited vocabulary, and children have not had the early training afforded by the reading materials to be found in other homes to-day. It should also be noted that in the primary grades, the pupils had more difficulty with reading, but found "numbers" relatively easy, while as they progressed in the grades, this was gradually reversed.

(c) Early starting age contributes largely to the number in Grade I (Fig. 3,4,5) from year to year, and to the high number of failures in Grade I (Table XVIII). The data for the starting ages of pupils in the day schools, already referred to, are supplied in greater detail in Table XX.

The majority of the pupils started at six years of age or less. Moreover, there is no uniformity in the time of year for starting. Most begin either at Easter or in September, for both of which there are advocates among the teachers. The majority

TABLE XIX
PUPILS' REPORT ON LANGUAGE AND DIFFICULTY OF SUBJECTS

School	Indian Language	Learned	No	Hardest Subject				Easiest Subject			
				Reading	Spelling	Arith'ic	Social Studies	Writing	Art	Grammar	Writing
Oneida #1	18	12	0	11	12	4	1	13	4	0	1
Oneida #2	29	0	0	11	4	6	1	0	0	0	0
Oneida #3	24	2	0	4	6	1	1	0	0	0	0
River Settlement	0	15	0	2	2	1	2	1	0	0	0
Back Settlement	0	21	0	3	9	2	1	6	0	0	0
Bear Creek	0	13	1	7	3	0	0	0	0	0	0
Moraviantown	0	16	0	2	9	0	5	0	0	2	0
Walpole Island #1	38	18	2	2	10	0	2	7	0	0	0
Walpole Island #2	14	0	0	5	3	3	1	1	0	0	0
Sarnia	23	27	0	9	10	0	7	0	0	8	4
Kettle Point	20	32	2	18	17	4	2	2	0	7	8
Totals	166	156	5	74	85	16	22	22	4	0	60
										62	49
										17	18
										10	0

favoured September because it gave the pupils a full term's work in the grade, and because when children started after Easter, it meant an influx of beginners at a time when the teacher was busy preparing older pupils for examinations and had no time for a new class. The objection to starting in the Fall was that the winter

TABLE XX
STARTING AGE OF PUPILS ENROLLED IN DAY SCHOOLS

• School	AGE								Total
	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	
Kettle Point			20	26	2	1		2	51
Sarnia	1	7	35	9					52
Walpole Island, 1		9	22	20	7	1			59
Walpole Island, 2		4	15	8	2		1		30
Moraviantown		1	21	17					39
Bear Creek		3	3	3					12
Back Settlement		3	12	7	2			1	25
River Settlement		1	9	5	2				17
Oneida # 1		7	19	5	2				33
Oneida # 2		5	20	7	2				34
Oneida # 3	1	2	22	4	1				30
Total	2	42	201	111	20	2	1	3	382

weather prevented their attending regularly, a condition which was aggravated by the early starting age. It was found that of the 94 pupils in Grade I who failed to be promoted to Grade II, thirteen started school at 5 years of age, fifty-four at 6 years, twenty at 7 years, six at 8 years, none at 9 years, and one at 10 years of age. When these facts are compared with Table XX, it will be seen that in the latter, 64.13 per cent of all pupils, or 245 out of 382, started at six years or under, while in the failures 71.27 per cent started at six years or under. The only extent to which failure can be blamed on early starting in this case is the difference of 7.14 per cent between the two figures above.

The indefinite starting age of children fails to take into account the factor of maturation, of readiness to learn. "In pre-school and primary children the level of inner growth undoubtedly plays a more significant role in learning than it does in later years" (20, p.306). Until teachers have the time and

equipment to give the very young children guidance in kindergarten-primary activities, it is no kindness to take them from the life of the home and stunt their mental and physical growth by the repressions of the traditional classroom. In Table XXI some interesting data are quoted by A. K. Leonard (29) in 1926, for the City of Toronto:

TABLE XXI
RELATION OF STARTING AGE
TO TIME SPENT IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

Those entering at 4 years of age took 9 years 2 months								
"	"	"	5	"	"	8	"	8
"	"	"	8	"	"	7	"	9
"	"	"	7	"	"	7	"	1
"	"	"	8	"	"	3	"	9

The time stated was that taken to reach the Entrance examination. The figures were for pupils in city schools; there is little doubt that the facts would be more striking for one-room rural schools. The advantage in starting before seven years of age is seen to be negligible; on the other hand their presence in school when too young seriously handicaps the teacher in her work with the older pupils. In a real sense, this crowding in at the bottom forces out many in the higher grades before they have received even the minimum education required for participation in modern life.

1. In the Supervision. As was intimated in an earlier chapter, the Indian schools are visited by Provincial Inspectors. Previous to the war they spent two half-days each year in each school; during the war this was reduced to one half-day. No Inspector has any large number of Indian schools, those of this area being visited by six Inspectors. The largest number is in the care of the Inspector for West Middlesex, who visits the day schools of the Chippewa and Muncey reserves and the residential school. Apart from their brief visits and reports the Inspectors have very little contact with the work of the schools — there are no school boards through which they can work, and they have little to say about the hiring of teachers. They have all shown a real interest in the Indian schools, are thoroughly capable men and highly respected in their Inspectorates. Nevertheless, with the above limitations placed upon them, they can be of little real help to the teachers. Having no opportunity to go deeply into the situation, they may be persuaded that Indian children are different

and incomprehensible; if they perceive that the weakness is in the teacher, there is little they can do about it. For the most part, teachers are left to solve their own problems.

The agents, as representatives of the Department, have the whole responsibility of the day schools, subject in some matters to the recommendations of the Inspector. With a multitude of other administrative duties they either cannot give sufficient attention to the schools or lack the training for such a responsibility. It is reasonable that in the business administration of the schools, the maintenance of buildings, grounds and equipment, the management of the Department's funds, the agents should represent the Department. The schools' educational policy and needs should be under the direction of some kind of educational Superintendent.

The most constructive influence has been the Annual Convention which has brought the teachers and Inspectors together for a day in the Fall term, for discussion and fellowship. To this gathering the Department sends a representative; some outstanding teacher or leader in education is usually brought in; members themselves contribute to the day's programme. This Convention has been maintained, with great profit, by the teachers themselves, as a result of their genuine concern and sense of need.

Perhaps the most serious oversight has been the failure to give the Indian people themselves any responsibility in education. Indian education is not financed out of Indian funds, but by appropriations from Dominion Government revenue, so that Indian Councils have had little to say concerning its administration. However efficient the school, it cannot accomplish its purpose without the co-operation of the homes. Without a voice in the management of the schools, with little opportunity to understand its objectives or express themselves regarding it, the parents can scarcely be expected to be working partners with the teachers. It is without doubt much simpler to operate with one person in full charge than to train people in the practices of democracy. However, until the people are permitted to assume some responsibility for education on their reserves, they will remain little-interested spectators or even opponents, and no educational programme will succeed.

In the case of the residential school, the United Church of Canada exercises a measure of supervision as well, through a Secretary of its Board of Home Missions. For the most part this has not taken the form of directing the school's operations, but the church has nominated the principal, assisted in securing staff

members, and negotiated with the Department at Ottawa on behalf of the church and the principal in matters of policy related to the school. Principals have complained that with three agencies concerned in the school, the Province, the Department of Indian Affairs, and the Church, supervision has tended to be somewhat perfunctory except for the investigation of complaints. There is a growing demand that the education of the Indians be given entirely to the Indian Affairs Branch, that the churches withdraw from this field. However desirable this might be, it will prove a very difficult change to accomplish, since the churches are likely to insist on an "all or none" policy in this regard. Perhaps the most serious failure in supervision of the residential school is the lack of a unifying supervision between it and the reserves and day schools from which it receives its pupils.

CHAPTER IX

RECOMMENDATIONS

Chapter VIII may have seemed unnecessarily critical. Whether or not it is, is dependent upon one's standard of measurement, whether that standard is the schools of rural Ontario as they have been, or as they ought to be in the light of changed conditions and a growing understanding of the educational process. Before suggesting the means of attaining this latter standard, something must be said concerning the end or purpose underlying the recommendations.

It is a much simpler matter to state the purpose of education for the Indians of this area to-day than it would have been even ten years ago; and certainly simpler than to do it for all of Canada. For the people of these reserves, who have been drawn into the life of the country by war-time employment where they were needed and appreciated, there can be no turning backward to a life of segregation and atrophy. The die is cast; for better or for worse their life must henceforth be identified with that of the people around them, whether it be agricultural, industrial, commercial or cultural. This need not imply that one people will assimilate the other, but it does suggest that the Indian people will find their own place within the life of the nation, bringing to it their own gifts and sharing in its common benefits. It is the writer's great concern that as this infiltration progresses, the Indians will find their places among the population on a basis of mutual self-respect rather than as a strictly labouring class or as a source of merely seasonal labour. In making this hope a reality, the role of education in its most comprehensive sense is absolutely vital.

There need be no debate, then, concerning the life for which the Indians of this area should be trained — it must be for a life shared with their fellow-Canadians, first in the world of work, but increasingly in a social and cultural way. It is likely that many will remain "commuters," preferring, when possible, to live among their own people and in the country. But since the reserves are neither large nor isolated, this need not prevent their participation in the common life.

If this purpose be accepted, there will be no necessity of outlining in detail either the purposes or methods of education, since these matters are receiving the attention of experts, and the materials available are voluminous. The highest purposes of education and its most effective materials and methods, as evolved in the Province of Ontario in the coming years, will be applicable to the Indians of these reserves, and should be made available to them. Recognizing the impossibility of reducing such an expanding concept to a definition, only a few of the many statements can be given here, to show, in the light of the information presented in this thesis, how applicable they are to the needs of the Indian people of this area.

Perhaps the simplest statement is that made by the C.N.E.A. (6, p.49): "We want people who are responsible citizens able and willing to control the destinies of the country and to keep as well as to make its laws — people who have an appreciation of everything that is fine in life, and who have the intelligence to make life better — people who can live and work together happily for their own good and for the good of all."

Tiegs quotes Cubberley (44, pp. 5, 6):

The real purpose in education, aside from the learning of a few facts and the mastery of certain abilities that are found to be of use in later life, is to train young people how to analyse a problem and find out things for themselves; to form in them good working habits; to show them how to concentrate attention and to study effectively and independently; to teach them how to gather facts and marshal them to form a conclusion; and to awaken in them motives for work beyond what the school requires.

Dickie (17, p.71) summarizes the task of the school as follows:

The school should provide for the pupil -

1. An environment enriched with a variety of profitable and attractive purposes.
2. Freedom, under the guidance of the teacher, to choose his own purposes and to devise and direct his activities towards the attainment of them.
3. Such instruction and experience in directing his activities as will enable him to act intelligently.
4. Instruction and experience to enrich his knowledge and to give him dexterity in the common skills; thus to enable him to understand himself as an individual and to communicate with, and express himself to, his fellows.

The somewhat larger scope of the school's responsibilities is outlined by Bobbitt (2,pp. 23,24):

The contributory labors of the school are such as the following: (1) to look seriously and responsibly at the nature, situation, and educational needs of every child in every family that it serves; (2) to discover how each child and youth carries on his twenty-four-hour continuity of activities; (3) to discover how each ought to carry them on under the conditions; (4) to note the ways and degrees in which each falls short of what he ought to be doing; (5) to note the kinds of enlightenment, conditioning, stimulation, and guidance required for preventing or remedying the deficiencies; (6) to plan its program of exercises day after day as carefully as a physician plans the treatment of his individual patients, so as properly to influence the twenty-four-hour living of each child and youth; (7) to help the pupils know with reasonable certainty and clearness what they ought daily to be thinking and doing in their self-planning and self-guidance; (8) to make the life at school for several hours each school day a carefully conditioned and supervised segment of wholesome living; (9) to provide clear, concrete patterns of all kinds of desirable behaviour; (10) to help the pupils to the knowledge needed for valuations and self-direction; (11) to help them to the skills required for facility of execution; (12) to stimulate and to reinforce the wills of the children and youths where such reinforcement is necessary; (13) to shape the valuations, attitudes and emotional gradients of the children and youths in such a way as to predispose them to the behaviour sanctioned by understanding; (14) to help the parents understand matters well enough to carry on their share of the work; (15) to provide the professional leadership and to co-operate with the families in the guidance and supervision of the young people; and (16) to help everybody understand how well they are doing their several portions, and to perceive the character of the life that each child and youth is achieving.

True education must do much more than train people to make good wages - they must be taught to live. The Indian has been compelled to make a living the white man's way; he ought not to be forced to accept at the same time our materialistic view of life. Let not the effectiveness of their education be measured, entirely by the material advantage it gives them. In learning self-discipline, an appreciation of others, tolerance, co-operation and the constructive use of leisure time, they will learn to live, whether or not their education "pays off" with a good job. Where a sense of values is concerned, the Indian is more likely to maintain his equilibrium than the acquisitive white man.

Another important objective will be to convince the people of the value of education, to secure motivation and incentive in both adults and children. A basic principle in this regard is stated by Bobbitt (2, p.65) as follows, "A person is willing to make the effort necessary to get what he needs when he realizes the nature and extent of the need, and when he sees that he must make the effort or go without." It will be essential in any system of education, not only to provide the opportunity and facilities for training,

but to create an appetite for it on the part of the people. This can be done by developing an educational programme which is closely related to the life-needs of the people, rather than one designed for college entrance or even high school entrance. These latter may be achieved in the process, but ought not to be the goal toward which the entire curriculum is directed. One's conception of the purposes of education must not be static, but must change with the changing needs of the constituency. The proposals to be made here are for a specific area, in a specific situation; if applied at all, they will have to develop with the people in an ever closer relationship to the expanding educational programme of the Province of Ontario until the needs and the remedy of the two groups converge and flow on together.

1. A Single Administrative Unit.

A single administrative unit, for the purposes of education, should be made of the area under consideration, namely the Kettle Point, Sarnia, Walpole Island, Moraviantown, and Caradoc Reserves. The Map (Fig. 1) reveals the compact nature of this area, and the possibility of administering it from Muncey. The distances from Muncey are: to Kettle Point, 55 miles; to Sarnia, 60 miles; to Walpole Island, 75 miles; to Moraviantown, 37 miles. When the distribution of population is considered (Table VI), it is seen that 49.66 per cent of the Indian population of the area are on the reserves at Muncey. The residential school, or its successor, is situated at Muncey, strategically located to serve this area and additional reserves if necessary.

Larger administrative units are being recognized as more efficient; nearly half of the School Sections of Ontario have in recent years been formed into Township School Areas, with the trend gathering momentum; most of the other Provinces have already discarded the smaller units. The weaknesses in supervision mentioned in the latter part of the previous chapter would be remedied in part by the formation of the larger unit. To recall the need, a passage is quoted from "Trends in Education" (6): "In the past, supervision was almost wholly a matter of inspecting and reporting — discovering and secretly recording a teacher's faults, tabulating the desirable and undesirable characteristics of the school, filing information with the Department (of Education) — doing everything but the important work of giving that helpful encouragement which nearly every teacher needs."

2. Superintendent of Schools.

Such an administrative unit implies the appointment of a Superintendent of Schools for the area, who would have responsibility for the education of the people of these reserves, through the day schools, the Senior School at Muncey, including their

attendance at high or vocational schools, and community and adult education. He would have the responsibility for the selection or approval of the teachers, the supervision of their work, the direction of their in-service training, and would co-operate with the agents and the Department in the improvement of their working conditions. With respect to the pupils, he would operate a follow-through and follow-up programme of Educational and Vocational Guidance and Placement, the use of cumulative records and testing - taking the responsibility for adapting the educational facilities to the individual's needs. He would encourage such activities as would secure the understanding co-operation of parents and the community in the work of the schools, through some form of Home and School Clubs, community responsibility for school grounds, and possibly the formation of a school board.

The duties of a school board might have to be largely advisory in nature, but it could be given at least one responsibility, the regular attendance of the pupils. The Indian Act provides as follows:

The Chief and Council of any band that has children in a school shall have the right to inspect such school at such reasonable times as may be agreed upon by the Indian Agent and the principal of the school . . . The Council may also make by-laws, rules and regulations, approved and confirmed by the Superintendent-General (Minister) regulating all or any of the following subjects and purposes, that is to say . . . (f) the construction and repairs of school houses, council houses and other buildings for the use of the Indians on the Reserve, and the attendance at school of children between the ages of six and fifteen years. (14, Sect. 9, sub-sect. 5; and S-185, s-s 2).

In the opinion of the writer, these and other powers of the Council listed under Section 185, s-s 2, could well be the means of developing a sense of responsibility in the Indian community in general, and in the work of the schools in particular. The problem of school attendance is more likely to be solved in this way than by compulsion through truant officers, especially when these are the members of the R.C.M.P., who, however understanding or reasonable, are still the representatives of the white man's domination over the Indian. The time has come, here, when the responsibility for an education, in the matter of attendance at least, should be placed upon the Indian people themselves.

The Superintendent would not supplant, but supplement, the work of the Indian agents concerned. The agent is the official representative of the Department on his reserve, and will be entrusted with the expenditure of Department funds, the care of buildings and roads, the passing on of requisitions for supplies. Much would depend upon the manner in which the two officers worked together, upon a clear understanding of the duties of each and an unwillingness on the part of either to trespass on the responsibilities of the other. The Superintendent would co-operate with other organizations working in the interests of the Indian people, such as the churches and the Women's Institutes; in some activities he might serve to co-ordinate these in the larger interests of the reserve. He would encourage any activity which would conceivably have educational value for the people. Others of his duties will appear in greater detail in the remainder of the present chapter. Alternative plans could be suggested for the education of the Indians of Western Ontario, but they would be modifications of the plan presented here; the latter is, in the opinion of the writer, the best for present needs, and will be presented as consistently as possible. The recommendations to follow will therefore assume the formation of this larger administrative unit under the care of the Superintendent.

3. Schools Needed.

Most of the schools needed to serve these reserves are already in existence and in operation, the principle of the day school on the reserve being established long ago. There are two-room schools at Kettle Point and at Walpole Island, while the need for another room at Sarnia has been recognized and plans are already under way for a two-room school there. Moraviantown will also need another room unless the senior pupils can be accommodated at Muncey. It is scarcely necessary to argue the advantages of the two-room school where all eight grades must be covered, and where the number of pupils warrants it. In the 1939 Report of the Department one beneficial result is apparent, - of 511 pupils enrolled in eight two-room schools, 30.52 per cent were in Grade I, 15.85 per cent in Grade II; of 2435 pupils enrolled in eighty-seven one-room schools, 40.65 per cent were in Grade I, 15.40 per cent in Grade II.

If the educational needs of these four reserves are to be met by schools on the reserves, these will have to be two-room schools of the improved community day school variety. The requirements vary with the changes in population and the distribution of the children of school age in a community. For example, it is

quite possible that at Kettle Point a school for the lower grades may have to be built on the west side of the reserve if small children are to have a fair chance of getting to school. In this case, the senior pupils could attend the senior room of the present school.

At Muncey there is an opportunity for a more advanced system of education. A number of the small day schools will still be needed, but these should be for younger pupils up to the age of twelve years or until the completion of Grade VI. Until the retardation in the lower grades is overcome, this would mean that most pupils would be permitted to move on to the senior school when they reached twelve years of age, whether or not they had passed the Grade VI requirements. By thus removing the senior pupils, and with them the work of Grades VII and VIII, the teachers would have a much better opportunity of giving the younger pupils a thorough preparation in the basic subjects and thus of overcoming the serious delay in the primary grades. In addition to these schools, a senior school, or junior high school should be erected on the property now occupied by the residential school. The senior school would be designed particularly for pupils from twelve years up, or Grades VII to X, and would be essentially a day school. It might have a room for the primary grades and one for Grades IV to VI, thereby making one or two day schools unnecessary (e.g. River Settlement and Lower Muncey). Transportation to this senior school will have to be provided; this will in turn require a considerable improvement in certain of the roads.

The curricula for these various types of schools will be discussed at a later point in this chapter. Explanations should be given here, however, on two vital matters - the discontinuance of the residential school which has held the stage for a hundred years, and the breaking of the school programme at Grade VI or twelve years of age. Some criticism of the residential school has already been offered, so that the principal objections can be summarized briefly here. With the improvement in economic conditions, parents have come to want their children at home; a greater number than formerly are able to provide for their children; with the reduction in enrolment it is impossible for the school to operate without a large deficit; to fulfil its intended purpose it is estimated that the per capita grant would have to be increased by probably fifty dollars; this will not be done, inasmuch as the present cost per pupil is believed to be unjustified by the results when compared with the work of day schools in the same area; the payment of Family Allowances, in which the Indians participate, will lead many parents to want their children at home

and should assist materially in securing foster homes for such children as need them; it is believed no longer necessary to provide institutional care for the children of these reserves, since good foster parents could be found with mutual benefit to them and the children (the adults would benefit both by the responsibility and by the remuneration they would receive for the care of the children, and thus conceivably would avoid the need for direct relief); the paternalism of the residential school perpetuates a measure of dependence on the part of the Indians, and in too many cases relieves parents of responsibilities they would be the better for assuming.

The change in emphasis from the residential to the improved day school has been influenced in no small measure by the trend in the United States where considerable experimentation has been done along this line during the past ten years. Various investigations revealed that a large percentage of the graduates of residential schools, instead of lifting the level of life of the reserves, were being consistently reduced to the level of life on the reserve - the pull of tribal custom and the weight of numbers prove too much for the individual. The new emphasis puts its hope in educating the whole reserve together so that the gulf between the school graduate and his people will not be so great; the same result is expected from the fact that pupils are not cut off from their own people for long periods while attending a residential school. Conditions being what they are in this part of Canada, the Department would prefer to spend the amount of money now used for the material needs of children who could be provided for by other means, upon improved educational facilities.

The proposal to place all pupils twelve years of age and over in a senior school is based upon the needs of adolescents for a new grouping, giving association with other adolescents, and for the more diversified curriculum possible in such a school. This plan has many noteworthy exponents and is no longer in the experimental stage. The English school system has been completely reorganized as a result of the Hadow Report (8,p.71). The first main conclusion on the regrading of education, in this Report, is as follows:

Primary education should be regarded as ending at about the age of 11+. At that age a second stage, which for the moment may be given the colourless name "post-primary", should begin; and this stage, which for many pupils would end at 16+, for some at 18 or 19, but for the majority at 14+ or 15+, should be envisaged as far as possible as a single whole, within which there will be a variety in the types of education supplied, but which will be marked by the common characteristic that its aim is to provide for the needs of children who are entering and passing through the stage of adolescence.

British Columbia operates "Junior High Schools" for Grades VII, VIII, and IX; Alberta has "Intermediate Schools" for the same grades; similar provision is made in Winnipeg; in Ottawa the Intermediate Schools for Grades VII and VIII have been operating for fourteen years; the Junior High School has developed rapidly in the United States since 1909. In a Brief submitted to the Royal Commission on Education (Ontario) by the City of Ottawa Public School Board (1945), the following recommendations, among others, were made:

(1) That some form of Intermediate or Junior High School organization be established in the cities of Ontario in which provision should be made for an adequate education for all pupils ranging in age from approximately 12 to 16 years — the legal school-leaving age in urban centres of Ontario. The best type of organization in large cities would be one containing Grades 7, 8, 9 and 10, but modifications of this type would be necessary in many cities, depending on such local conditions as expected enrolment as well as capacity and location of present school buildings. (2) That the programme of studies be practical, be rich in social content, and be such as to meet the needs of different groups of pupils in this age range, including those who will leave school at the end of the course, those who will go on to academic secondary schools, and those who will go on to technical schools.

The Hamilton Board of Education also submitted a Brief to the Commission, reporting on their "Senior Public Schools" for Grades VII and VIII. The following passage explaining the functions of the Intermediate School is taken from the Programme of Studies of the Intermediate Schools of Alberta (10, pp. 6, 7):

The Intermediate School is a school for pupils of the 'between ages' - pupils from eleven to fifteen years of age. It offers a distinctive programme of studies and activities specially suited to pupils who have attained the status of early adolescence. Like the elementary school, it represents an attempt to adjust the school programme and environment to the needs of an age group. Like the High School, it offers a programme of liberal-cultural studies, but with the difference that its programme is not primarily concerned with preparation for advanced academic instruction.

.... the intermediate school must be a preparatory school for pupils who will proceed to the High School; but at the same time it must serve as a 'finishing school' for pupils who, for one reason or another, are unable to advance beyond Grade IX.

Many pupils who have no aptitude for academic training drop out of Grade VII or VIII with a sense of inadequacy and failure, when they could still profit from further education if it were of a kind suited to their needs. It is the proper function of the intermediate school to offer a programme that will appeal to all pupils of the adolescent group; a programme that is complete in itself and valuable in its own right, without regard to preparation for the High School; a programme that will, in effect, enable pupils who leave school to do so with a sense of accomplishment.

The intermediate school must accept responsibility for completing the education of many young citizens. It should, therefore, inculcate loyalty to the democratic ideal, and exemplify in its programme, procedures and government, the value and efficacy of that ideal. It should continue the programme, begun in the elementary school of teaching the pupil how to examine both sides of a question, how and where to find facts, and how to use the evidence of authorities in reaching a conclusion. It should preserve and foster the spirit of personal freedom, evoked in the elementary school by the enterprise procedure.

One of the most practical values of the intermediate school, and of special interest to the problem of the Indian schools, is its 'holding power,' by reason of which pupils remain voluntarily for a longer period of education. A greater sense of completeness and accomplishment would be achieved if Grade X could be included, so that pupils could be awarded the Intermediate Certificate of the Department of Education.

4. Teachers.

In securing teachers for the Indian schools, there is but one source, the teachers trained in the Normal Schools of the Province. The deficiencies in the training provided by these institutions are being recognized and corrected by the Department of Education in its post-war programme. Unfortunately, as was pointed out in an earlier chapter, there are few inducements for the best teachers to teach in the Indian schools. Before one can engage in the selection of teachers for Indian schools, it will be necessary for the Department to make several changes in the treatment of its teaching personnel.

(1) Salaries will have to be equal to or better than those of rural Ontario, and preferably with a wage scale which will encourage teachers to remain when their usefulness increases. Allowance must be made, of course, for such provisions as a "teacherage" with its equipment and fuel.

(2) Some provision will have to be made for membership in a Pension Fund. It is the Department's purpose in this respect, to include, at an early date, all teachers in the Civil Service. This would entitle them to membership in a Pension Fund, and would give them employment for the full year. Failing this, arrangements should be made between the Department and Province of Ontario to permit teachers to contribute to the Provincial Superannuation Fund. At present, every year spent in an Indian school is a year lost in terms of one's pension payments.

(3) Teaching conditions in the classroom can be considerably improved - provision for suitable sanitary conveniences, satisfactory janitor service, more attractive classroom interiors, and greater promptness in sending needed supplies.

(4) A more helpful supervision, with a personal interest in the welfare of the teacher, a concern for her continued training, and the opportunity of teaching in the school where she can do her best work, will be influential in keeping good teachers in the service.

As a result of these changes, a Superintendent could hope to select teachers on the basis of their qualities as students and teachers. In addition to this, there should be some provision made for the in-service training of teachers. For this purpose, the following responsibilities of the Superintendent are suggested:

(1) An annual Summer School for all teachers expecting to teach in Indian schools during the coming term. This could be held during the first week (or two weeks) of September, when the pupils are still far afield with their parents (see Figure 6) and when, the teachers being on salary, attendance could be made obligatory. This course could include classes in Educational Psychology; Kindergarten-Primary methods; the historical background of the Indian people; the aims and objectives of the coming year; discussion on all topics related to the work.

(2) Monthly meetings of the personnel of each reserve for discussion of problems, the regular study of chosen topics, and fellowship.

(3) The guidance of teachers' reading, and the provision of books and professional periodicals; possibly the circulation of those possessed by the Superintendent and teachers as well as the provision of a reference library at the senior school.

(4) Selecting and recommending certain teachers who could be assisted to attend accredited Summer Schools while on salary during the usual vacation period.

Competence in teaching is not possible at all without an ardent desire to grow and to improve both personally and in professional knowledge and skill; willingness to give up easy well-known routines; willingness to study the new and go through the arduous and difficult process of learning new ways. (4, p.187).

It is a mistake to suppose that mediocre schools and teachers will suffice for Indian schools on the grounds that they will not make use of their education. There are difficulties and opportunities in this work which should challenge the best in any teacher.

It is no longer possible for a student armed with a basic understanding of a few subjects and recommended techniques for teaching them, and possessing the ability to maintain proper discipline, to go out and do a successful job of teaching. The teacher of today is in a field of endeavour which calls for a high degree of intelligence, a dynamic personality, education equal to that of workers in other professions, and, above all, a sympathetic understanding of children. Upon the teacher's shoulders rests the responsibility of developing in the pupils those modes of conduct and ways of thinking that are demanded by a changing, complex, democratic society. The teacher is charged with the task of creating an environment conducive to the fullest development of the child along lines leading to personal happiness and well-being and to the welfare of society. (32, p.12)

There are persons who make "good teachers," who seem to possess natural gifts of working with children, who are instinctively psychologists even without formal training, who have within themselves the ability to create an environment conducive to learning. It ought to be possible to discover such persons during the early years of their teaching, and secure them for Indian schools, where only the best can hope to succeed.

Certain basic understandings are necessary. Teachers must know and sincerely believe that:

1. Learning can be done only by the learner. No amount of teacher activity or effort is of any value unless learning activities result.
2. The needs, interests, abilities, problems, and purposes of learner, whether sensible or not, are the only fruitful starting point and continuing motivation for learning activity.
3. The less sensible interests, purposes and activities of the learner, that is the socially wasteful or useless, the selfishly individualistic, are to be made over through the sympathetic guidance of the teacher.
4. Subject matter is useful and meaningful only as it serves some worthwhile need or purpose of the learner.
5. The teacher can help students to learn, can aid them in overcoming difficulties, in overcoming undesirable habits and attitudes only as she understands the mental and emotional processes of the individual.
6. Democracy can be successful only as individuals are prepared for understanding of, and intelligent participation in it; are given a genuine faith in it and an ardent desire to make it work. (4,p.187)

For the continued mental health of the teacher, there will have to be opportunities for a satisfying social life. A portion of this should be found in the life of the community and in the company of other teachers of Indian schools. In the case of two-room schools with residence provided, every consideration should be given to the hiring of married couples, if possible, with both of them qualified teachers. Their influence in the community would be greatly enhanced, their income sufficient to enable them to live a full life both on and off the reserve, and the arrangement would tend to a greater stability in the teacher personnel. Teachers must themselves have well integrated personalities if they are to achieve a classroom atmosphere conducive to learning.

“The guidance of learning activities” by the democratic method of the Activity Programme rather than the authoritative, autocratic method of the traditional school, or the “laissez-faire” method of misguided or weak individuals, demands the highest qualities of character and training. The means must be found of securing such personnel for the Indian schools of this country.

5. Methods and Materials.

There can scarcely be any doubt in the reader's mind as to the writer's interest in the methods of Progressive Education, as they are seen in the Activity Programme. An attempt was made in Chapter VIII to point out the weaknesses of the traditional school methods, and repeated references have been made to their inadequacy. The philosophy of education and psychology of learning upon which the Activity Programme is based, together with the methods of procedure, are thoroughly presented in recent books, some of which are to be found in the bibliography at the close of this chapter. It is therefore unnecessary to do more than urge that this method, or philosophy, or psychology, of education be investigated and appropriated for the education of the Indian people. There is a good summary of the enterprise in the Ontario Programme of Studies (35).

The title “Progressive Education” has been much misunderstood and maligned, largely because it has been incorrectly identified with a vogue for complete self-expression in children, for the removal of all restraint and discipline. Such a laissez-faire method has resulted in chaos and consternation in many quarters, and would certainly do so among the Indian people, who respect firmness and frequently mistake leniency or kindness for weakness. The principles of Progressive Education, however, properly understood and applied, would transform the education of the Indian people.

“Dewey’s emphasis on pupil activity, on richness of experience, on reflective thinking and on the importance of pupil purposes in the educative process have been the fundamentals of the modern progressive point of view.” (36, p.424). Modern education has concentrated on the problem of how learning takes place. Learning involves the response of the whole individual to a whole situation; the pupil’s ability to learn is affected by his readiness, the stage of his growth or maturation. “Learning cannot be successful or efficient without persistent, selective and purposeful effort.” (20,p.12). The great task of education is to provide opportunities for activities and experiences which will call forth from the pupil such “purposeful effort.” This necessitates a study of the pupil’s interests, the nature and scope of his experience and his ability, the development of his emotional life in the school atmosphere. Subject-matter must be meaningful because the pupils can perceive its relationship to previous experiences in daily life. “It is by placing specific items in a broader pattern of relationships that we invest them with meaning Education should call for the exercise of intelligence, encourage active discovery rather than memorizing ‘authoritatively identified connections’ (Gates).” “The process of learning leads from wonder to inquiry and finally to understanding. To lead children along these steps to learning is the function of experience curricula and enterprise procedures” (17, p.30).

A new concern for the emotional health of pupils has led to important studies of the effect on children of different types of classroom supervision (autocratic, democratic, laissez-faire) and the resulting atmosphere of the school; the effects of repression, failure, frustration, coercion. The result has been a deeper understanding of the pupils’ reactions and of how to secure the co-operation desired from them. In the new freedom of action and thought and speech, children discuss and choose the topics for study which are related to their interests, and guided unobtrusively by the teacher, discover a multitude of absorbing subjects awaiting their attention. They divide themselves into committees and assign portions of the work or research to each; they carry out their projects with singleness of purpose and report their findings to the group. In this more natural atmosphere, in place of emotional stresses, fear and rebellion, there emerge integrated personalities, better prepared for the life they will find outside the school.

The hope of our Indian people lies in the application of this new psychology to the treatment of Indians by schools, churches, and government representatives; in participation in activities which they have discussed and chosen; in the use of democratic principles of government; in the practice of co-operative self-

help; in the emotional release and growing self-respect resulting from free creative self-expression. The values inherent in the Activity Programme touch our Indian schools at the points of their greatest needs. Teachers find their biggest obstacle in a "lack of interest," a lack of incentive or motivation. There are many contributing factors to this condition, but the writer is convinced that the chief of these are in the school itself, an opinion shared by some who have overcome it in Indian schools. The Indian heritage includes, (1) a love of freedom, (2) a communal or democratic way of life, (3) natural skill in manual arts, (4) keen powers of observation, (5) a deep-seated distrust of the white man and his well-intentioned efforts to help him. The traditional school either ignores or aggravates all of these, while in the modern school, the first four would be natural allies and the fifth would gradually be overcome.

The modern school gives training and experience in group activity, in co-operation, in learning to live and work with other people. This is a fundamental need of all children to-day but especially of the Indians, since they are entering a period of transition in which they will have to go out into the life of the community around them. Their knowledge and skills learned at school must be of a practical nature if they are to make a place for themselves in the life of the nation. There has not been enough of this "transfer" of learning in the past — too many of the Indian youth have found the world of work too bewildering, too difficult, and have preferred the sheltered life of the reserve.

The modern school has a programme and an approach which is more successful in enlisting the support of the community for its work, it trains the children in democratic procedure, discussion, group activity, in readiness for a constructive place in the community. It has become apparent that there are terrible deficiencies in the educational system when judged by the extent of the understanding of the nature and function of democracy, and, more important, the ability of the people to live together in a democratic way. Traditional methods of education have been based upon competition rather than upon co-operation, upon glorification of the individual rather than the potentialities of group action. People do not know how to evaluate public issues or to use the franchise intelligently; opinions are being dictated largely by tradition and prejudice. Modern education provides training and experience in the practices of democracy. For a people who will in the near future be assuming the responsibilities of citizenship, this training is of the utmost importance.

The materials of the modern school are not as complicated

or difficult to obtain as might be expected. In practice, many of the articles used in carrying through an enterprise are brought by the pupils; even tools are borrowed from parents; on occasion the adults give some assistance. Perhaps the most important change involved is in the provision of work tables and chairs, and of some form of movable seating, which can be arranged in a half-circle for discussion or used in a variety of ways in the working out of a project. There will need to be, also, a good supply of reference books so that pupils can do their own research on a great variety of problems. Classrooms will need to provide more space per pupil if there is to be room for the various enterprises which may be in progress. This may be taken care of in most of the schools by the reduction in pupils resulting from the taking of senior pupils into senior rooms or the senior school.

The use of audio-visual aids in some form has been the practice of educators for many years, but has received a new impetus in recent years. Many types of visual aids are well known to teachers and are in general use. Some of these are, - the blackboard, maps and globes, pictures, posters, classroom experiments. The value of such aids is recognized and needs no elaboration. Recent developments in the use of various types of projectors for still, motion and sound pictures, deserve some mention at this point.

Reference has been made to the lack of electric power in any of the day schools, although it is within easy access of some of them. Even without it, smaller projectors for still pictures can be used, by operating from storage batteries. The combination projectors for filmstrips and for 2" x 2" slides are compact and exceedingly useful, in view of the growing supply of slides and filmstrips available from various firms, and designed for educational purposes. An additional value is in their possibilities for amateur camera "fans," since a school could make up its own library of Kodachromes or filmstrips on school activities, nature studies, etc.

The opaque projector, or reflectoscope is proving of great value, since it will throw on the screen, by reflection, any available material such as pictures, reading matter, illustrations, graphs, etc., from text books, magazines and papers, and this in colour just as it appears on the paper. It has been found invaluable in the teaching of reading to primary grades, making available a wider range of material than could be provided in books for all the class and enabling them to use the required vocabulary in ever new settings. By this method classes have learned to read in a fraction of the time normally taken. It is not difficult to recognize its usefulness in other subjects such as science and

social studies. The standard type is large and somewhat cumbersome, as well as expensive, but an inexpensive yet efficient model, which any school should be able to obtain, has recently appeared. The opaque projector possesses an advantage over other types in that the materials for use can be found and made by the pupils at no cost. Its value in the school programme can scarcely be overestimated.

The possibilities in the sound motion picture are tremendous, especially since there is such a large supply of sound films available on a wide variety of subjects, and at low cost. The Superintendent for this area should certainly have a sound projector for use in the schools and communities. Where electric power could not be provided, it is conceivable that he might equip his car with a suitable generator to operate such a machine. One danger in their use is that they may become mere entertainment; if they are to be used for educational purposes, teachers will need to study the technique of choice and use, and the preparation of pupils as well as the evaluation of the film afterward. An appendix has been added in which the sources of films are listed, as well as other supplies mentioned in this section. The Ontario Department of Education has its own supply of such films, as have the National Film Board and several commercial firms.

In a catalogue of free films produced by the Bell Telephone Company of Canada, the following evaluation of the sound film as a teaching aid is given:

The training film is a highly scientific tool in the teacher's hand and can help him to present his subject more clearly, more understandably, and more thoroughly than any other teaching aid yet devised. By the use of these films the teacher enlists the aid of experts, both in visual and in verbal presentation; he brings into use pictures and diagrams that would be impossible to show by any other method; he synchronizes a commentary and introduces movement. No other method of teaching will enable the teacher to bring to his pupils the close approximation of travel, of participation in events, or of contact with the things which are not immediately available to the classroom. The motion picture will magnify those things which are too small for the naked eye and will make smaller the things which are too big to bring to class; it will speed up the growth of a plant to a few minutes and will retard the flight of a bullet so that it may be seen; it will split up and analyse complex processes; it will reach backwards into time or will predict the future; it can present abstract ideas which heretofore could be acquired only through complicated processes of reflective thinking. In short, this magic carpet of education can carry the student into almost every field wherein he may obtain knowledge.

6. Curriculum.

It is not to be supposed that modern classroom procedures get rid of the basic subject-matter of the curriculum and devote the entire day to projects or play. There are fundamental requirements which are judged by competent educationists to be necessary to an education - the province provides a course of studies for both elementary and secondary school levels. The curricula of the province will still form the core of the curricula for Indian schools, because, (1) the entire educational resources of the province will be continually striving to prescribe curricula best suited to the needs of the people within the Province, (2) the teachers will be trained in these subjects, (3) Indian pupils have occasion to attend white schools at times, and some will proceed to public high or vocational school.

The real responsibility for developing a curriculum rests upon the teacher. Given the general outline of courses, she will develop the curriculum on the basis of the needs of her pupils. "Such responsibilities require the educator to know the community with the same thoroughness with which he has striven to know the individual. Consciousness of community on the part of the teacher must be the controlling educational attitude in the determination of school policies, methods and aims." (36, p.300). Any attempt to outline curricula here must be tentative, therefore, and will be suggested on the basis of the writer's observations. It will be a primary task of the Superintendent and his teachers to develop subject-matter and methods to meet the needs peculiar to the Indian youth.

So far as the subject-matter for the schools up to Grade VI is concerned, the provincial curriculum, as revised from time to time, can be accepted. This period is intended to provide a general, basic training in the fundamental skills, together with practice in group living. The important emphases have already been discussed, namely, the need for teachers trained in the psychology and methods of modern education, and the ability to adapt the course of study to the needs of the pupils. With such a teacher, whose concern is with pupils, and who identifies herself sufficiently with the life of the people, who will be able to relate subject-matter, text books, and the countless problems which arise, to the needs of the pupils, - there will be little need of a special curriculum.

One of the most striking changes brought about by the enterprise in the re-orientation of the 'subjects' from their former rigid isolation. At first each subject was graded singly for a period of a given length, they

are now welcomed collectively by the Activity Programme; Arithmetic, Social Studies, Reading, Natural Science and Health fraternize together in a most natural and friendly fashion, and Art has become the handmaiden of them all. (23, p.89).

Several recommendations of a general nature should be made. Greater emphasis should be placed on spoken or conversational English, with a view to increasing the vocabulary of the younger children. Beginners should be carefully studied to ascertain their range of experience and ability. Participation in the various activities of the school will prove valuable. Care should be taken that pupils are not "pushed" too hard without regard to their readiness and maturity. This is perhaps particularly true of arithmetic, which could well be delayed until the pupils had become familiar with numbers, perhaps in simple games. The frustration which results from repeatedly trying to do tasks beyond one's ability is a frequent cause of lost interest, of boredom, or even rebellion. Some very interesting experiments have been carried out in the preparation of reading materials based on the interests of rural people, which would prove valuable (41); a similar project might well be attempted by a group of teachers in Indian schools.

For want of a better place, the question of school starting age must be reopened here. The facts and their consequences were presented in Chapter VIII; there is left but to make some concrete suggestions in this regard. From the evidence it seems that there should be a specific time and a minimum age when pupils will be permitted to begin. While such a matter should be discussed by the teachers concerned and some degree of uniformity reached, the writer would recommend that a child begin no sooner than September in the calendar year in which he reaches his seventh birthday. That is to say, should his birthday fall between school opening and December 31, he would be allowed to start, though still only six years of age; otherwise the starting age should be seven years. In the event of a teacher having a small enrolment, and being willing, a limited number of six-year-olds might be admitted for the short afternoon period when the school was engaged in its enterprises. It is possible that with the new system operating, the starting age could be lowered to six years, provided the teacher were equipped to give training fitted to the children's needs.

In Grades VII and VIII, in the schools of Kettle Point, Sarnia, Walpole Island, and Moraviantown, there will have to be provision for the Provincial curriculum for those pupils who are

able to proceed to the Entrance examination and possibly to high or vocational school. There is little to be done with the course of study in this case, except to give due emphasis to agriculture and other subjects which broaden the pupil's outlook. There is, however, great need of enriching the course of study for those who will receive no further education than that provided in their own school before they reach seventeen years of age. (This might be accomplished by expanding the "Optional Subjects" of the curriculum, - Crafts, Manual Training, Home Economics, and Agriculture.) The purposes of the intermediate school, outlined earlier in this chapter, apply here.

It is to be noted that the main points of emphasis in recent curriculum planning are in the realm of the practical rather than the academic work of the school, in broadening the sphere of influence.

Day care for preschool children, the lengthened school day for elementary and secondary students, adult education, work experience, camping, community service and teacher participation are but manifestations of a new ferment in education . . . These extensions of educational opportunity represent a marked shift in the method of curriculum development. From the reorganization of courses and subject areas, emphasis was shifted to working with and for people on meaningful and vital problems, from rigidly formulated courses of study to plans for study developed in classrooms by teachers and pupils. No questions are raised as to the ground which should be covered or the norms on standard tests which should be reached. The practices of neighbouring schools are seldom followed. The principal questions relate to the best ways and means of meeting a local need. (37, pp.3,4).

All this adds up to the improved Community Day School which has been pioneered in the United States by the Indian Affairs Branch, and which grew in numbers between 1929 and 1939 from 131 to 212. (During the same period non-reservation boarding schools were reduced from 74 to 49, while reservation boarding schools were transformed into Vocational High Schools.)

The day school plant has become increasingly the centre for a variety of community activities - meetings to discuss problems of community government, meetings to consider community concern with relief, discussions of better agricultural practices, and organizations of women and men for the renewal and perpetuation of craft skills. Community recreation has also been fostered by the schools. Dances - native recreational dances - are arranged for the community school. In some of the larger buildings libraries

have been organized which are opened in the evenings for adult use. Gymnasiums and athletic fields are increasing in number and are open as much to the community as to the school children. In some areas it has been possible to arrange for periodic showing of motion pictures. Rodeos, celebrations, and in some cases, Indian ceremonials are tending to centre around the day school plant or playground. (1).

It is the hope of the Department to develop similar community day schools in Canada, varying with the needs of the locality. As an important part of this plan, the appointment of teachers as members of the Civil Service, to which reference has already been made, will provide full-time leaders for the community, whose responsibilities will be more comprehensive than those of the present teachers. Such schools, by securing adult participation in their activity programme, and by making their facilities available for community enterprises, should prove a valuable unifying influence on each reserve, and develop a constructive programme for the Indians' leisure time.

It should be recognized that there will be quite a number of students in these schools who cannot hope to achieve their High School Entrance, and for whom there should be a worthwhile programme of practical subjects without any accompanying stigma. The academic objective of the "Entrance" has proven, for many, a hurdle so forbidding that they have shied away even before reaching Grade VIII, lest in the inevitable failure their self-respect be lost. The curriculum of these schools must be elastic enough to start at the point of the pupils' interests and needs, and develop those skills which will be of value to him in his situation.

Where two-room schools are provided, Grade IX should be added to the curriculum, so that pupils could obtain this additional year without going away from home. It is true that these four reserves are near enough to town high schools that the children may attend them, if the will and the resources are sufficient. A considerable number have done so, except from the Kettle Point Reserve. There is no doubt that more would be willing to take an extra year of schooling if it could be done in the home school. For those few who are able to do so, however, there would be some advantage in their getting into the larger schools in town, since these could offer more thorough training in such Grade IX subjects as Agricultural Science, Shop Work, Home Economics, and Guidance. It is the writer's hope that the Senior School at Muncey will offer, in time, a programme superior, for the Indians, to anything obtainable elsewhere, and that provision will be made for them to attend there if they choose to do so.

In considering the important question of curriculum for the Indian schools, the Senior School at Muncey will receive most of the attention in this chapter. To some extent, the recommendations made here will apply to the needs of the whole area viewed as an educational unit, and it will be assumed that the programme provided at Muncey will be available to pupils of the whole area, or that similar training will be obtainable in the schools near home. The discontinuance of the residential school will lead to vigorous protests from some quarters, but the proposed plans are based upon a long-range view of the needs of the Indians. It is possible to discriminate in favour of a people as well as against them. The Indians have a right to educational opportunities equal to the best in the Province, but should no longer be impoverished in spirit by the type of care provided by the present residential schools. Bobbitt (2, pp. 59,60) describes the effect of paternalism on children; though referring to parents, much of his statement could be applied to the paternalism of the Government toward the Indian people.

Family life is largely built upon, and actuated by, feelings that to-day operate to prevent needful self-direction by its younger members. Parents so greatly enjoy doing things for their children, and are so anxious for their well-being and success, that they would keep their own more ripened and reliable judgment long overtime in full control, instead of turning responsibilities over to the immature and relatively uncertain thought of youth. They keep the young people in leading strings so that they will never stumble. They do their thinking for them so that it will never be in error.

"This well-meaning paternalism inevitably bears an evil fruitage. In independence of character, self-reliance, sense of responsibility, powers of initiative, and self-control, the young people do not grow up . . . The sheltered life dwarfs its victims. As such persons meet the inescapable problems of the world, they expect some paternalistic agency to take care of them; and if it does not, they react like clamorous, spoiled children and not like responsible, resourceful and self-reliant adults. Instead of going out and doing things for themselves, they want somebody to rush to their rescue.

There is a very considerable advantage in the centralized supervision of Indian affairs. Financially there are no such problems as how the cost will be divided between the Province and the municipality; in administration there are no trustee boards to be convinced. If the need is great enough and the proposed plans give reasonable assurance of meeting the need, there is good reason to believe that the changes can and will be made. Provincial public school regulations need not prevent or delay action; they

will nevertheless be kept in mind for the sake of those Indian pupils who will want to attend provincial schools. All the benefits of the provincial school system are at the disposal of the Department, with few of its disadvantages. Large appropriations have been made for the Indian services. The Department will be faced with one possible deterrent, - the fact that any special concessions granted to one school or area are likely to be demanded by others.

The Senior School will have to be prepared to give instruction in all the elementary grade subjects. It can be seen in Table XII that those coming to it from the day schools may range from Grade I to Grade VII, if permitted to enter at the age of twelve years. Moreover, if transportation is to be provided for the older pupils, it will be argued that certain younger pupils could be brought also, and so do away with one or more day schools. For example, River Settlement school is small and has a small constituency, many of whom are nearer the site of the Senior School. There would be additional value in having this main body of pupils in the lower grades, into which the older pupils might come for those subjects in which they needed help. Thus, tentatively, one can see the necessity for at least four classrooms for academic work, - for Grades I to III, IV to VI, VII and VIII, IX and X.

Bearing in mind that most of the pupils will be twelve years of age or more, with a wide variation in their grade standing, it is recommended that they be classified on the basis of their year at the school, rather than by their grade. This would suggest that they be permitted to 'major' in the vocational and trade subjects, with the opportunity of picking up those academic subjects which they are able to master. During the first two years, their work in these fields should be of a general character, as proposed normally for Grade IX students ("Optional Subjects" - Crafts, Manual Training, Home Economics, Agriculture, plus those outlined especially for this school), so that they may make a wiser choice for later specialization.

For those relatively few pupils who have the ability and the desire, and have made normal progress before entering Senior School, provision should be made to take the academic or general course right through Grade X so that they could transfer to Ontario high schools without any loss of standing. Even in this course there is opportunity for practical activities in the options. It has been estimated that in the past only about five per cent of Indian pupils have shown any inclination to take secondary school education and carry it through to completion. This proportion is likely to increase steadily, particularly if the retardation in the lower grades is overcome. While it is debatable whether they should be urged to do so,

the opportunity should certainly be afforded and encouragement given those who have the will and the ability to secure an academic education. Most of the pupils could be encouraged to win the intermediate certificate by the time they left the school, which would allow extra time for both academic and practical work.

In the opinion of the writer, Indian youth should aspire to all the education they can assimilate. There is a proven correlation between the length of schooling of the population and the kind of employment in which they will be engaged (see Dominion Census, 1940, Table Occ.No.03); between years in school and the use people make of their leisure time (37). Moreover, if the Indian people are to assume the responsibilities of citizenship, they will need trained leaders, and their people must be prepared to evaluate public issues. If they are to attain an equitable place in the social, cultural, and economic life of the nation, it will be by the road of education.

The courses of study for Grades IX and X as prepared by the Department of Education provide sufficient scope for the purposes of the Senior School. Pupils can begin to specialize in a variety of courses, - Industrial and Agricultural, Home Economics, Commercial and Art. Within these broad classifications there is an abundance of worthwhile courses of study, while each of the four classifications includes the three basic subjects, English, Social Studies, Physical and Health Education, and Cadet Training. There is little one can add to this comprehensive outline, since within these courses there is elasticity enough to allow the school to develop those subjects most valuable to the pupils. Some indication should be given of the points of emphasis required for the Indian youth.

For the girls, the Home Economics Course would include the planning, preparation and serving of meals; care of the house; the selection, care and making of clothing; crafts; nutrition; food purchasing. Serious consideration should be given to the operation by this group of a cafeteria or tuck shop for the noon lunches. A common weakness of such training is the relatively lavish scale on which things are done (as to quantities and equipment), so that graduates don't even try to apply their training in the home situation. The girls should have an opportunity to manage a small "family" with the simple equipment of an average Indian home, and with a modest budget. As a special feature, a senior girl might be asked to take charge of one of the staff households for a week, with remuneration. A cabin could be constructed by the boys for demonstration purposes; the planning of such a project by both girls and boys would involve a study of the require-

ments of the average Indian family, and be most valuable for all concerned. In various ways during the four years, means should be found by which every pupil would learn the value of money, in terms of both labour and purchasing power. It is scarcely necessary to suggest that this be done by providing opportunities to earn and spend their own money.

As and when the need arises, the subjects of the Commercial Course should be developed. The day should soon come when Indian girls will become stenographers and clerks, and not be limited to the domestic service occupations. Part of the secretarial work of the school could well be done by senior students. The girls will in all probability want training in Art, Music, and the work of the Beautician. They should also be permitted to take the courses in gardening and care of poultry, since much of this work is still done by the women. Classes in public health and nursing could be arranged with the co-operation of the resident nurse and doctor. It is of the utmost importance that courses should be developed as a result of the felt needs of the young people; visits to the homes by pupils and teacher would make them aware of the needs and help them in the realm of the practical. Classes might assist graduates in the furnishing of their homes.

For the boys, the practical arts are included in the Industrial and Agricultural Courses. In the Agricultural division, courses will be sought in agricultural science, the use and care of farm machinery, gardening, poultry, the care of stock. A special study should be made of the use of small acreages; the types of soil on the reserves and the crops they are best suited to produce; available markets, and co-operative methods of buying and selling. The work done in such high schools as Port Perry and Simcoe furnishes abundant proof of the possibilities in this course. General Shop, including woodworking, sheet metal work, machine shop practice, and draughting is most useful as a general foundation in the first two years. Generally speaking, in spite of the fact that Indians have given excellent service in war industries, it will prove more satisfying if they learn the construction trades such as carpentry, bricklaying, plastering, concrete, and stone work; and there is a big demand for skilled tradesmen in these fields. (See Appendix I). In this respect the possibilities of apprenticeship should be explored. In the Report of the Minister of Education for Ontario for 1943, page 23, the following statement appears:

Under the Ontario Apprenticeship Act, apprenticeship is being provided in a wide variety of trades connected chiefly with the building industry. In view of the anticipated shortage of mechanics after the war, this phase of instruction is being fostered in every possible way. The Federal Government

has passed an order-in-council offering financial assistance to the Provinces in the development of apprenticeship training. School boards are being encouraged to take advantage of these provisions in co-operation with the Apprenticeship Branch of the Ontario Department of Labour, which is conducting a campaign throughout the schools to interest pupils in the advantages of becoming indentured to some particular trade. Such a far-sighted plan of seeking to produce our own skilled mechanics is dependent upon the training facilities provided in vocational schools. The trend of apprenticeship preparation leans more and more towards a balanced combination of theoretical instruction in the classrooms and shops and practical experience on the job.

There will be opportunity for the Indians in such practical trades to be of real service among their own people, since in the coming years many homes on the reserves will have to be rebuilt or replaced. Most of the men have quite an aptitude for house-building; there should be no difficulty in producing good craftsmen. Here again, opportunities will present themselves for the pupils to render practical assistance on the reserves.

A course in motor mechanics should certainly be available for the boys. Most families depend on a car of some kind for driving to work in all seasons of the year and it is essential that they be able to do most of the repairs themselves. A garage operated by the students and instructor for the repair of neighbourhood cars would provide experience in both repair and business management, together with an opportunity for part-time work for senior students. This method would assure a greater variety of practice material and a more meaningful course of instruction than the mere dismantling and assembling of a few motors.

A great variety of social and recreational activities will be possible in addition to the class enterprises and the Physical Education programme. Clubs for Drama, Music, Occupations, Hobbies, Athletics, will originate in the active minds of these 'teen-agers. The sports programme should bring them into competition with nearby continuation and high schools. A school paper might be prepared for circulation among graduates and friends of the school. There is no need to elaborate further the probabilities of these "extra-curricular" activities; modern youth can propose more than educators can keep up with.

Student participation in the planning of the school programme has been intimated in many connections. Carried to its logical con-

clusion, this trend issues in some form of Students' Council, to represent the student body, to assist in matters of discipline and management, to afford opportunities for practice in democratic procedures. By this means, one would hope that the pupils would come to feel a sense of responsibility for the success of the school and a feeling of pride in its accomplishments. One of the great needs for the school at Muncey will be to achieve a "school spirit," a loyalty to the school which may produce and be fostered by an Alumni Association of some description.

When the Canadian Youth Commission met in Toronto in June 1945, one of the needs of youth was declared to be an opportunity to continue their education on a part-time basis to the age of eighteen. Such a programme should be possible and valuable for a number of pupils through co-operation with the Agency's programme on the reserve and the operation of the farm at the school. Nothing has been said concerning the disposition of the farm, but it ought to lend itself admirably to the programme outlined here and should be an integral part of it. It is possible that its management may be transferred to the agent and Farm Instructor, except for the Superintendent's interest in the educational value of any pupil participation in it. The work of the farm should not be done by the pupils as heretofore; but if at all, on a part-time basis and with pay. Access should be had to sufficient land for instruction in gardening and pupils should share in the other work only to the extent that it is necessary to make their instruction practical.

Suitable living quarters should be provided for members of the staff, in the form of compact apartments, with, perhaps, houses for the Superintendent and the principal. The hope has already been expressed that the privileges of the school will be made available to Indian youth of a larger area than the immediate reserves, in which case there should be residential accommodation for them. This should be of a nature suited to young people in their 'teens, with rooms for two pupils, common rooms and modern sanitary equipment. It is beyond the purpose of this thesis to suggest building plans or financial arrangements. The building and equipment will be determined by the type of instruction to be given, but it should be in accord with modern practices of school architecture, and equal to the best in the Province.

There should be available the services of certain members of the staff as helping teachers on the reserve, in such work as music and crafts suitable for all grades up to Grade VI. This will probably make an additional member of the staff necessary, but will assure the success of the total programme. There should be the

closest co-operation between the Senior School and those on the reserves; this mutual assistance would promote a sense of inter-dependence, and form a link which would be valuable when the pupils advanced to the Senior School.

7. Educational and Vocational Guidance.

Among the other duties suggested for the Superintendent was that of building up a programme of Educational and Vocational Guidance and Placement for the area under his supervision. This is a most vital part of the whole system, which will give direction, purpose, and value to the children's education. It will involve obtaining for every child of the reserves concerned a record of his home background, including the school standing and occupation of his parents, brothers, and sisters. It will concern itself with the child's school entrance and with the discovery of his abilities, disabilities, and readiness to learn and will include a record of his school progress; it will build up a cumulative record for each pupil on the basis of which, in consultation with his teacher, and his parents, the pupil may reach a decision as to the courses of study to be taken in the upper grades. It will help the pupil to know himself, his powers, his weaknesses, and his needs; it will make known to him the opportunities in the occupational fields and show him the relationship between his studies and his prospective work.

On the basis of this accumulated knowledge of the pupil, the Guidance programme will gradually lead the pupils who come to the Senior School into the courses for which they are best fitted by capacity, aptitude, and preference, and will, in the senior years, become Vocational Guidance. This guidance programme will not end with the student's graduation, but will provide a placement service for graduate students. From the experiences of the graduates in the world of work much can be learned which will guide the teachers in their efforts to prepare the pupils for their environment. The measure of the success of the educational process will be the manner in which the graduates adjust themselves to the life situations - obtaining and keeping a suitable job, fitting into the social and community life, setting up a home, raising the family. The responsibility of the guidance officers may become somewhat lighter, but can never be entirely relinquished. The first number of the School Guidance Worker (46) quoted from the publication Vocational Guide as follows:

Guidance is developing both horizontally and vertically. No longer is the emphasis placed only on the secondary school and college years, but guidance activities are beginning in the elementary grades, (even with the pre-school and nursery child) and extending through adult education. Nor is guidance merely 'vocational' and 'educational'; it has grown to include the needs of the whole and adjusted person.

The guidance movement in Ontario now has a Provincial Director and a fast-growing Centre at the Ontario College of Education. This Vocational Guidance Centre is building up a most useful stock of supplies for the teacher-instructor of guidance. The materials may be divided roughly into two types - those which provide information concerning the pupil, and those which supply information on occupations. The first type includes the various tests - intelligence, achievement, aptitude, interest, etc.; materials for cumulative records, anecdotal reference and record sheets. The second type is building up information for Occupational Files and materials for teaching the course in Occupations now required for Grade IX. A mailing service keeps all subscribers supplied with materials and information in this growing field. The Senior School would require a section of the school library for books on Vocational Guidance and Occupations, as well as a filing cabinet for an Occupational File.

It is obvious that such a programme could not be carried out by one person alone; the Superintendent could initiate it and co-ordinate the work of the teachers, and perhaps be responsible for the placement and follow-up work. The success of the programme would depend, in the last analysis, upon the teachers.

The teacher's part in a guidance programme is inevitable. In the teacher lies all the hope of education. However fine the theory, however experimental the spirit, it is the teacher who puts them to the final test in practice. Principals and supervisors stand ready to help him, but teaching is what he as a person makes it. The school counsellor is the support of the teacher at the point where individual children show need for special understanding and help. Neither can do the other's job. Together they can do much to make the school experience a positive, constructive one for all children; one in which each child has a chance to grow to the limit of his ability. *(School Guidance Worker, #2)*

Macomber (32, Ch.12) discusses Guidance under the following heads:

Guidance is concerned with the whole life of the child.

1. The heart of the guidance program in the elementary school is the teacher.
2. Guidance in the elementary school is an integral part of the teaching and learning process.
3. Some phases of the guidance program require school-wide and city-wide planning.
4. A successful guidance program requires close co-operation with community agencies.
5. Effective guidance requires close parent-teacher co-operation.
6. Effective guidance requires close co-operation of elementary and secondary schools.
7. Effective guidance requires maintenance and utilization of cumulative records.

Those pupils of the four reserves other than at Muncey who proceed to high school in nearby towns, will still be within the Superintendent's sphere of influence. They should have the benefit of his counselling services when desired; he would consult from time to time with the pupils' own school counsellors as to their progress. It would be his responsibility to recommend pupils for the Department's tuition and assistance grants, or to recommend otherwise; to assure that only those pupils who will profit by further education would be assisted, and that those who were wasting their time would be persuaded to do something else.

One of the pressing needs is for supervision of suitable places where Indian young people can board in town; this applies as well to those who would continue after Grade X. Many pupils have been prepared to attend high or vocational school in town, and have even started to school there, but have had to stop for lack of a satisfactory boarding house. Two alternatives are open in this regard, - either find good homes for these young people, where there are other young people and where the parents would take a genuine interest in them and would not exploit them in any way; or organize a co-operative residence in town in charge of a competent married couple, where those attending school could associate together in a wholesome atmosphere. The latter plan is worthy of serious consideration and some financial assistance.

The casualty list among these 'teen-agers who have gone into town to school is too high. They are too young to stand up

to the loneliness and distractions of city life without the support of their families or their own people. They are frequently charged too highly, or worked too hard, or exploited in other ways. There should be someone responsible for their interests. As a concrete example, five pupils who passed their Entrance in the Muncey schools in 1944 started to high and vocational schools in town. Of these, only one remained for the whole term, and she remained because her teacher took a personal interest in her and took her into her own home. One boy of exceptional ability was overcharged for his board, and when forced to miss school with a broken collar-bone, his good clothes were confiscated by his landlady; he did not get back to school. Another girl, also of unusual ability, had to leave in two months for lack of a suitable home. For all, the difficulties are too great; in common parlance, they have two strikes against them when they begin. Many of these tragedies could be averted by the supervision of a Superintendent or a Director of Guidance.

The Senior School at Muncey would enable pupils to obtain two years of secondary training while still within the restraining influences of their own people. Those who continued after Grade X would then be older and better prepared for the discipline required of those who seek an education. A second important advantage of the plan proposed is that Indian children would have the opportunities of the vocational courses without the necessity of the academic qualification of High School Entrance. They need that opportunity, but in the past it has been open to only a few. With respect to the results of elimination in the present system, Thomson says (42,p.61), "The trouble is not that it selects the intellectual, but that it merely eliminates the others without providing for their further education."

One further word, - it is obvious that such a Senior School, to which all the pupils beyond twelve years of age would go, must be free of denominational bias. If the United Church of Canada gives its consent to the change, it will be because it is more concerned about the welfare of the Indian people of this area than in the perpetuation of an institution because of sentiment or the proselytizing of the people. In the religious life of the school, the various denominations of the reserve should be represented. In the larger interests of the Indian people, the United Church of Canada may find it necessary to surrender some of its prerogatives, while continuing to exercise its influence on the broader aspects of policy.

The education of the Indians of Canada is the responsibility of the Dominion Government and will be assumed by them only

as and when the churches relinquish their hold upon the residential schools. On the other hand, the churches are not likely to do this until convinced that the government will do a better piece of work than they. The use of "missionary" personnel has sometimes resulted in inefficiency, but without these earnest people, the work would never have been done. With increased emphasis on professional training and efficiency, there will have to be a considerable increase in remuneration and an improvement in working conditions. When this happens, will the work be victimized by the patronage system in politics? The policy in such matters will need to be very clear before any church will abdicate in favour of the Department of Indian Affairs. This shift of responsibility is overdue, but must take place progressively. In the plan proposed by this thesis, an opportunity is provided of doing experimental work which should prove of great value for future educational work among the Indians of Canada.

SUMMARY OF RECOMMENDATIONS

To assure equality of opportunity to the Indians of Western Ontario and the type of education they require for this critical period of transition, the following recommendations have been made:

1. That a single administrative unit for the purposes of education be made of the five Reserves included in the survey (Kettle Point, Sarnia, Walpole Island, Moraviantown, and Muncey), and that a Superintendent of Schools be appointed for this area.
2. That day schools be developed as community service centres; that those of the first four reserves be two-room schools. That the Mt. Elgin Indian Residential School as such be discontinued, and a Senior School or Junior High School be built on the property at Muncey.
3. That the teachers for these schools be carefully selected from among the best in the Province on the basis of their personal qualifications, training, and previous successful experience. To make this possible, other provisions must be made, - (a) Inducements. Salaries must at least equal those of the town schools of Ontario and provide an increase for satisfactory service; there must be membership in a Pension Plan, either in the Civil Service or Teachers' and Inspectors' Superannuation Fund of Ontario; living and teaching conditions must be made attractive. (b) In-service training must be made obligatory, including regular Summer School courses in Kindergarten-Primary, Auxiliary classes, educational psychology and related subjects; a Summer School for teachers of Indian schools should be held the first week in September, as well as monthly meetings of teachers for study and fellowship. Supervision should be more thorough, helpful, and encouraging.
4. That the methods of the Activity Programme be thoroughly studied and applied, and that materials and equipment be adjusted to facilitate this type of classroom procedure. That assistance be given those teachers who will use to advantage the Audio-Visual Aids now available.

5. That the Curriculum of the Province be accepted, with adaptations made by the teacher on the basis of pupil needs. Grades I to VI should be of a general and basic character, with emphasis on the mastery of spoken English and Reading. Grades VII to IX should be provided in the two-room schools, with opportunity for High School Entrance, but emphasis on the optional subjects for those who will go no further. At Muncey, the day schools should include only Grades I to VI, pupils to be admitted to the Senior School at twelve years of age or after completion of Grade VI.

The Senior School should specialize in Grades VII to X, both academic and vocational, but include classes for Grades I to VI. Classification of senior pupils should be by their year in the school rather than by grade. There should be development of the following courses, Home Economics, Commercial, Agriculture, Building Trades, Motor Mechanics, and other practical work as the demand arises.

Pupils should have the opportunity of part-time work and educational training from 16 to 18 years of age. The possibilities of apprenticeship in the building trades should be investigated. Social and recreational activities should be encouraged, and the leadership available when needed.

6. That a programme of Educational and Vocational Guidance and Placement be developed and directed by the Superintendent of Schools with the co-operation of the teachers. That this programme include responsibility for pre-school children and graduates, as well as those of school age.
7. That serious consideration be given to making the advantages of the Senior School available to pupils of reserves other than Muncey, by the provision of residential accommodation of a kind suitable to 'teen-age young people.'
8. That the Senior School be free of denominational bias; the United Church of Canada, while retaining its voice in the broader policies of the school, may surrender some of its prerogatives in the interests of the total good of the Indian people.

Postscript

April 10th, 1948

During the two years which have elapsed since the above recommendations were written, several of them have been carried out. In fairness to the officials of the Indian Affairs Branch, it was felt that these improvements should be recorded here.

With respect to Number 2, above (Summary of Recommendations): A second room has been added to the school at Kettle Point; a new three-room school has been erected at St. Clair (Sarnia); a second room is planned for Moraviantown this year in temporary quarters, and a second room has been opened at Oneida No. 2. The Mt. Elgin Indian Residential School was closed on June 30, 1946, and the United Church of Canada surrendered the responsibility for education on this Reserve to the Indian Affairs Branch, Department of Mines and Resources. A senior Day School has been carried on during the two years, and a new building is expected to be completed for occupancy in September.

With respect to Number 5, above: The smaller schools on the Reserves at Muncey have been relieved of Grades 7 and 8. Pupils are taken to the Senior School when ready for Grade 7, or when age 12 plus (if 13 prior to December 31, they may enter in the fall term). The school now has pupils in Grades 9, 10 and 11, and expects to go as far as Grade 12 next year. In addition to Grades 7 to 12, the school has a room for those admitted who are not ready for Grade 7. This class resembles somewhat an Auxiliary Class. Emphasis will be on Vocational Courses for both girls and boys. Transportation by bus is provided.

With respect to Number 3, above: A salary schedule has been put in operation, which provides yearly increments depending upon satisfactory attendance at summer courses at intervals of three years. All teachers in the service now contribute to a retirement allowance, which will be applied to their civil service pension, when they have been accepted as permanent civil servants

REFERENCES

1. Beatty, Willard W.: "Indian Education in the United States", Indians at Work. Washington, April, 1940.
2. Bobbitt, Franklin: The Curriculum of Modern Education. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1941. Pp. xii + 419.
3. Bureau of Publications, Teachers College: Gates Reading Survey Tests, Grades 3-10. Columbia University, New York, 1942.
4. Burton, William H.: The Guidance of Learning Activities. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., 1944. Pp. xiv + 601.
5. Canada and Newfoundland Education Association: Report of the Survey Committee Appointed to Ascertain the Chief Educational Needs in the Dominion of Canada. 1943. Pp. 80.
6. Canada and Newfoundland Education Association: Trends in Education 1944. A Survey of Current Educational Developments in the Nine Provinces of Canada and Newfoundland. 1944. Pp. 58.
7. Conn, Henry: "Retardation and How to Prevent It." Report of the Ontario Education Association, 1916.
8. Consultative Committee to the Board of Education, England: Hadow Report The Education of the Adolescent. Great Britain: Board of Education, 1926.
9. Cubberley, C. E.: The Principal and his School. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1923.
10. Department of Education, Province of Alberta: Programme of Studies for the Intermediate School. Edmonton: The Department of Education, 1941. Pp. 240.
11. Department of Education, Province of Ontario: Annual Report of the Minister of Education. Toronto: The Department of Education.
12. Department of Educational Research, Ontario College of Education: Dominion Achievement Tests in Silent Reading, Primary, Grade I. Toronto: Department of Educational Research, 1943.
13. Department of Mines and Resources, Indian Affairs Branch: Annual Reports, 1936 and 1944. Ottawa: Department of Mines and Resources.
14. Department of Mines and Resources, Indian Affairs Branch: The Indian Act (Consolidated form for office use). Ottawa: Department of Mines and Resources.
15. Department of Mines and Resources, Indian Affairs Branch: Schedule of Reserves, 1938. Ottawa: Department of Mines and Resources.
16. Department of Mines and Resources, Indian Affairs Branch: School Register. Ottawa: Department of Mines and Resources.
17. Dickie, Donald: The Enterprise in Theory and Practice. Toronto: Gage & Co., 1931. Pp. viii + 440.
18. Dominion Bureau of Statistics: Canada Yearbook. Ottawa: Department of Trade and Commerce.
19. Fenton, William: Problems Arising from the Northeastern Position of the Iroquois. (Reprinted from Smithsonian Miscellaneous Collections, Vol. 100. Pp. 159-251). Washington: Smithsonian Institute, 1940.
20. Gates, A. I. et al: Educational Psychology. New York: Macmillan Co., 1942. Pp. xviii + 805.

21. Grant, W.L. et al: Makers of Canada Series. Toronto: Oxford University Press, 1926.
22. Harris, William R. : A Forgotten People: The Flint Workers. Buffalo Historical Society, Vol. 4, pp. 227-244. Buffalo: The Historical Society, 1896.
23. Hubbs, Helen M. : Seasonal Activities for Primary Grades. Toronto: Ryerson Press, 1941. Pp. x + 107.
24. Hunt, George T. : The Wars of the Iroquois. A Study in Intertribal Trade Relations. Madison: University of Wisconsin Press, 1940. Pp. 209.
25. Indian Association of Alberta: "Memorial on Indian Affairs." The Association, 1945. Mimeographed.
26. Jamieson, Elmer: "Indian Education in Canada." M.A. Thesis, McMaster University, 1922. Pp. 59. MS.
27. Jamieson, Elmer: "The Mental Capacity of Southern Ontario Indians." D.Paed. Thesis, University of Toronto, 1928. Pp. x + 216. MS.
28. Jones, Arthur E. : Old Huronia. 5th Report, Bureau of Archives, Toronto, 1908.
29. Leonard, A. K. : "Overageness and Underageness in the Elementary Schools of Ontario." M.A. Thesis, University of Toronto, 1926. Pp. iii + 47. MS.
30. Lips, Julius E. : General Anthropology, pp. 487-534. (Frank Boas, editor). New York: D. C. Heath & Co., 1938.
31. Loram, C. T. and McIlwraith, T. F. : The North American Indian To-day. Toronto: University of Toronto Press, 1943. Pp. xi + 361.
32. Macomber, F.G. : Guiding Child Development in the Elementary School. New York: American Book Co., 1941. Pp. viii + 335.
33. McVitty, S. R. : "The Mt. Elgin Indian Residential School", The Missionary Bulletin, 1920.
34. Miller, J.C. : National Government and Education in Federated Democracies - Canada. Chapter VIII: "Education of the Indians", pp. 272-293. Philadelphia: J. C. Miller, 1940.
35. Minister of Education for Ontario: Programme of Studies for Public and Separate Schools of Ontario, Grades I to VI (or VII, VIII). Toronto: The Department of Education, 1941.
36. Monroe, W.S. (Editor): Encyclopedia of Educational Research. "Rural Education", pp. 953-989. New York: Macmillan Co., 1941.
37. National Education Association, Department of Supervision and Curriculum Development: Towards a New Curriculum. Washington: National Educational Association, 1944. Pp. iv + 191.
38. Okanagan Society for the Revival of Indian Arts and Crafts: Native Canadians. A Plan for the Rehabilitation of Indians. Oliver, B.C. : The Society, 1943.
39. Parkman, Francis: The Jesuits in North America. Boston: Little, Brown & Co., 1909. Pp. xvii + 586.
40. Pressey, S. L. and Robinson, F. P. : Psychology and the New Education. "Table of Out-of-School Activities," p. 120. New York: Harper & Bros., 1944.
41. Seay, M. F. and Clark, H. F. : The School Curriculum and Economic Improvement. Lexington: University of Kentucky, College of Education - Bureau of School Service Bulletin, Sept. 1940.
42. Thomson, Godfrey H. : A Modern Philosophy of Education. New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1929. Pp. 283.

43. Thwaites, R.G. (Editor): The Jesuit Relations, and Allied Documents.
73 volumes. Cleveland, 1898-1901.
44. Tiegs, E.W. : The Management of Learning in the Elementary Schools.
New York: Macmillan Co., 1937. Pp. ix + 306.
45. United Church of Canada, Board of Home Missions and Women's Missionary Society: "Report of Commission on Indian Education." 1935. Pp. 35. Mimeographed.
46. Vocational Guidance Centre, Ontario College of Education: The School Guidance Worker. Monthly. Multilithed.

APPENDICES

Appendix A .

INDIANS EMPLOYED - (OCCUPATIONS OF INDIANS)
Summary of Census Figures

OCCUPATIONS	1931.		1941.			
	Canada	Ontario	%	Canada	Ontario	%
Indian Population (1929, 1939)	108,012	27,420	25.39	118,378	30,145	25.46
All Occupations	34,574	9,749	28.20	40,047	9,757	24.36
Agriculture	9,605	2,711	28.22	11,489	2,241	19.31
Farmers and stockraisers	5,169	1,213	23.47	5,218	860	12.65
Farm Labourers	4,360	1,442	33.07	6,264	1,579	25.20
Fishing, Hunting, Trapping	14,645	3,187	21.76	17,182	3,221	18.75
Fishermen	3,925	595	15.16	3,508	446	13.28
Hunters, Trappers, Guides	10,720	2,592	24.18	13,674	2,756	20.15
Logging	1,175	555	47.23	2,845	1,026	36.06
Lumbermen	1,012	479	47.33	2,763	990	35.83
Mining and Quarrying	115	59	51.30	213	82	29.11
Manufacturing	1,751	299	17.08	1,577	523	33.16
Building and Construction	295	137	46.44	776	239	30.79
Carpenters	175	76	43.43	312	142	45.51
Painters, decorators	40	23	57.50	66	26	46.42
Structural Iron Workers	12	-	-	339	40	11.80
Transportation and communication	697	235	33.71	926	328	35.42
Longshoremen, stevedores	103	18	17.47	144	1	.69
Sectionmen, trackmen	160	21	13.12	252	70	27.77
Teamsters	181	78	43.09	123	50	40.65
Truckdrivers	54	38	70.37	202	128	63.36
Trade	276	73	26.45	307	88	28.66
Owners and managers - retail	118	36	30.51	125	36	28.80
,, „ „ „ - wholesale	24	2	8.33	11	1	9.09
Salespersons in stores	74	25	33.78	121	34	28.10
Service	1,492	683	45.78	2,412	1,045	43.32
Public	16	6	37.50	87	20	22.98
Personal	138	47	34.08	134	64	39.02
Domestics	1,240	594	47.90	2,136	952	44.57
Housekeepers, matrons, stewards	814	423	51.96	1,215	568	46.75
Laundring, cleaners, dyeing	191	81	42.41	504	195	38.69
Waiters, waitresses	84	29	34.52	33	18	54.54
Clerical	80	25	41.66	115	33	42.30
Labourers, unskilled workers	4,414	1,761	39.89	2,092	910	52.17
						43.50

APPENDIX B

RESULTS OF DOMINION ACHIEVEMENT TESTS IN SILENT READING
Primary, Grade 1.

Number of Pupil	Age at time of test	Type I		Type II		Type III	
		Score	Grade Norm	Score	Grade Norm	Score	Grade Norm
<u>Grade I</u>							
001	8-0	12	1.3	8	1.5	5	1.5
002	6-9	2	1.0	6	1.5	0	1.0
003	7-9	7	1.1	10	1.6	20	2.4
004	9-8	14	1.4	18	1.9	8	1.6
005	10-3	6	1.0	30	2.5	15	2.0
006	8-6	2	1.0	14	1.7	6	1.5
007	7-7	7	1.1	13	1.7	2	1.4
008	8-4	15	1.4	17	1.8	5	1.5
009	8-1	7	1.1	17	1.8	--	--
010	6-7	15	1.4	15	1.7	--	--
011	7-4	12	1.3	22	2.1	16	2.1
012	7-6	19	1.6	18	1.9	12	1.9
013	8-3	15	1.4	20	2.0	11	1.8
014	8-6	12	1.3	20	2.0	14	1.9
015	8-6	21	1.7	20	2.0	17	2.1
016	8-5	8	1.1	8	1.5	8	1.6
017	7-2	13	1.3	9	1.6	5	1.5
018	7-3	14	1.4	36	2.9	15	2.0
019	7-3	43	2.9	37	3.0	15	2.0
020	7-6	16	1.5	21	2.1	13	1.9
021	7-10	1	1.0	4	1.5	6	1.5
022	7-9	10	1.2	13	1.7	3	1.4
023	8-5	4	1.0	2	1.4	0	1.0
024	8-9	19	1.6	13	1.7	7	1.6
025	9-1	9	1.2	10	1.6	5	1.5
026	8-3	12	1.3	8	1.6	7	1.6
027	8-7	8	1.1	--	--	--	--
028	9-7	15	1.4	--	--	--	--
029	7-6	1	1.0	--	--	--	--
030	8-5	11	1.2	--	--	--	--
<u>Grade II</u>							
031	8-6	21	1.7	18	1.8	17	2.1
032	9-10	15	1.4	18	1.8	21	2.5
033	7-9	2	1.0	14	1.7	1	1.3
034	10-8	19	1.6	15	1.7	6	1.5
035	10-6	44	3.0	48	3.7	26	3.1

APPENDIX B (cont'd)

DOMINION ACHIEVEMENT TESTS

Number of Pupil	Age at time of test	Type I		Type II		Type III	
		Score	Grade Norm	Score	Grade Norm	Score	Grade Norm
Grade II 036	(continued) 6-6	27	2.0	22	2.1	10	1.7
037	7-6	20	1.7	23	2.2	8	1.6
038	7-9	15	1.4	16	1.8	7	1.6
039	7-6	30	2.2	17	1.8	17	2.1
040	9-4	25	1.9	24	2.2	18	2.2
041	8-8	15	1.4	15	1.7	6	1.5
042	7-2	37	2.5	25	2.3	10	1.7
043	6-3	31	2.2	24	2.2	13	1.9
044	9-9	45	3.1	40	3.3	24	2.8
045	8-1	32	2.3	13	1.6	11	1.8
046	8-6	24	1.9	28	2.4	9	1.7
047	12-1	33	2.3	21	2.1	6	1.5
048	9-6	47	3.2	43	3.4	27	3.3
049	8-6	31	2.2	43	3.4	21	2.5
050	10-9	16	1.5	15	1.7	10	1.7
051	7-9	27	2.0	33	2.7	11	1.8
052	10-9	24	1.9	17	1.8	8	1.6
053	10-8	12	1.3	9	1.6	0	1.0
054	7-8	16	1.5	12	1.6	5	1.5
055	14-0	26	2.0	23	2.2	12	1.8
056	9-2	30	2.2	32	2.6	20	2.4
057	8-11	38	2.5	36	2.9	3	1.4
058	11-0	44	3.0	44	3.5	26	3.1
059	11-5	34	2.4	44	3.5	28	3.5
060	10-6	30	2.2	35	2.9	15	2.0
061	9-3	46	3.1	48	3.7	24	2.8
062	9-0	47	3.2	48	3.7	26	3.1
063	10-9	42	2.9	39	3.2	16	2.1
064	8-2	35	2.4	23	2.2	13	1.9
065	9-4	39	2.6	29	2.5	8	1.6
066	10-11	40	2.6	42	3.4	26	3.1
067	10-9	18	1.6	29	2.5	17	2.1
068	10-6	31	2.2	23	2.2	24	2.8
069	9-6	14	1.4	11	1.6	5	1.5
070	10-6	10	1.2	15	1.7	2	1.4

APPENDIX B (cont'd)

DOMINION ACHIEVEMENT TESTS

Number of Pupil	Age at time of test	Type I		Type II		Type III	
		Score	Grade Norm	Score	Grade Norm	Score	Grade Norm
Grade II	(continued)						
071	11-6	14	1.4	18	1.9	5	1.5
072	9-6	21	1.7	38	3.1	8	1.6
073	9-6	17	1.5	20	2.0	0	1.0
074	9-1	18	1.5	15	1.7	9	1.7
075	10-6	23	1.8	17	1.8	7	1.6
076	7-6	21	1.7	24	2.2	10	1.7
077	7-6	21	1.7	7	1.5	6	1.5
078	9-5	27	2.0	20	2.0	15	2.0
Grade III							
079	8-9	41	2.8	36	2.9	16	2.1
080	10-1	33	2.3	29	2.5	11	1.8
081	8-6	45	3.1	47	3.6	24	2.8
082	8-3	41	2.8	33	2.7	25	2.9
083	8-11	38	2.5	25	2.3	8	1.6
084	10-2	35	2.4	33	2.7	22	2.6
085	8-2	48	3.2	49	3.7	22	2.6
086	9-0	44	3.0	43	3.4	24	2.8
087	12-4	37	2.5	36	2.9	24	2.8
088	9-1	40	2.6	42	3.4	25	2.9
089	8-7	42	2.9	38	3.1	24	2.8
090	8-9	41	2.8	43	3.4	28	3.5
091	9-0	48	3.2	50	3.8	28	3.5
092	7-9	48	3.3	43	3.4	23	2.7
093	9-10	44	3.0	50	3.8	24	2.8
094	10-3	44	3.0	50	3.8	28	3.5
095	11-1	48	3.2	41	3.3	26	3.1
096	9-6	43	2.9	48	3.7	28	3.5
097	10-9	45	3.1	48	3.7	24	2.8
098	12-2	43	2.9	42	3.4	25	2.9
099	11-2	47	3.2	46	3.6	26	3.1
100	10-3	42	2.9	47	3.6	27	3.3
101	9-10	48	3.2	50	3.8	27	3.3
102	10-1	47	3.2	49	3.7	28	3.5
103	11-1	47	3.2	46	3.6	27	3.3
104	10-4	48	3.2	50	3.8	28	3.5
105	8-10	47	3.2	47	3.6	28	3.5

APPENDIX B (cont'd)

DOMINION ACHIEVEMENT TESTS

Number of Pupil	Age at time of test	Type I		Type II		Type III	
		Score	Grade Norm	Score	Grade Norm	Score	Grade Norm
Grade III	(continued)						
106	10-4	48	3.2	50	3.8	28	3.5
107	9-8	46	3.1	37	3.0	18	2.2
108	13-3	45	3.1	48	3.7	27	3.3
109	10-2	48	3.2	40	3.3	21	2.5
110	8-11	48	3.2	49	3.7	28	3.5
111	8-6	48	3.2	48	3.7	26	3.1
112	10-6	46	3.1	48	3.7	26	3.1
113	12-7	46	3.1	47	3.6	27	3.3
114	10-10	46	3.1	48	3.7	28	3.5
115	10-11	48	3.2	45	3.5	25	2.9
116	13-2	38	2.5	41	3.3	25	2.9
117	10-10	47	3.2	41	3.3	7	1.6
118	11-11	16	1.5	22	2.1	7	1.6
119	8-9	43	2.9	35	2.9	24	2.8
120	11-7	43	2.9	34	2.8	24	2.8
121	9-11	47	3.2	44	3.5	27	3.3
122	9-8	47	3.2	47	3.6	22	2.6
123	9-8	44	3.0	37	3.0	21	2.5

APPENDIX C
RESULTS OF GATES READING SURVEY TESTS

Gr.	No. of Pupil	Age	Speed			Comp'n			Vocabulary			Average		Accur'y	
			RS	GS	AS	RS	GS	AS	RS	GS	AS	GS	AS	%	R
3.9	001	9-5	6	2.1	7-5	0			8	3.2	8-8	2.7	8-2	50	V-L
3.9	002	8-10	18	3.1	8-7	23	3.7	9-3	17	3.8	9-4	3.5	9-1	78	V-L
3.9	003	10-7	7	2.2	7-6	1	2.6	8-0	5	3.0	8-6	2.6	8-0	88	H
3.9	004	11-8	5	2.1	7-5	17	3.5	9-0	13	3.6	9-1	3.1	8-6	62	L
3.9	005	11-2	5	2.1	7-5	7	3.1	8-7	10	3.4	8-10	2.9	8-3	55	V-L
3.9	006	8-8	19	4.3	10-0	25	3.8	9-4	20	4.0	9-8	4.0	9-8	86	H
3.9	007	9-6	2	1.9	7-2	5	3.0	8-6	13	3.6	9-1	2.8	8-3	66	L
3.9	008	13-2	4	2.0	7-4	8	3.2	8-8	12	3.5	9-0	2.9	8-4	50	V-L
3.9	009	9-7	12	3.2	8-8	9	3.2	8-8	11	3.5	9-0	3.3	8-9	75	L
3.9	010	12-6	14	3.5	9-0	13	3.3	8-9	7	3.1	8-7	3.3	8-9	47	V-L
3.9	011	9-1	13	2.8	8-3	17	3.5	9-0	18	3.8	9-5	3.4	8-11	33	H
3.9	012	9-3	16	2.9	8-5	23	3.7	9-3	17	3.8	9-4	3.5	9-0	48	V-L
3.9	013	9-0	19	3.3	8-9	8	3.3	8-8	6	3.1	8-7	3.2	8-8	54	V-L
3.9	014	10-6	23	3.8	9-4	37	4.1	10-1	14	3.7	9-3	4.0	9-7	103	V-H
3.9	015	9-6	23	3.8	9-4	35	4.2	9-10	19	3.9	9-5	4.0	9-6	92	H
3.9	016	10-0	15	2.9	8-5	28	3.9	9-5	21	4.1	9-9	3.6	9-2	88	H
3.9	017	10-11	17	3.0	8-6	23	3.7	9-3	22	4.2	9-10	3.6	9-2	85	H
3.9	018	10-9	21	3.8	9-0	22	3.7	9-3	20	4.0	9-8	3.7	9-4	95	V-H
3.9	019	10-0	16	2.9	8-5	26	3.8	9-4	26	4.8	10-7	3.8	9-5	32	L
3.9	020	9-11	9	2.4	7-9	14	3.4	8-10	9	3.3	8-9	3.0	8-5	30	L
3.9	021	11-3	25	3.8	9-4	17	3.5	9-0	14	3.7	9-3	3.7	9-2	34	L
3.9	022	12-11	12	2.7	8-1	11	3.4	8-10	21	4.1	9-9	3.4	8-11	36	L
3.9	023	12-8	11	2.6	8-0	26	3.8	9-4	18	3.9	9-5	3.4	8-11	39	L
3.9	024	10-1	31	4.7	10-5	32	4.1	9-9	15	3.7	9-3	4.2	9-10	91	H
3.9	025	11-8	15	3.9	8-5	24	3.7	9-3	14	3.7	9-3	3.4	9-4	71	V-L
3.9	026	10-9	15	2.9	8-5	18	3.5	9-0	23	4.4	10-1	3.3	9-2	94	V-H
3.9	027	10-4	21	3.5	9-0	33	4.1	9-9	20	4.0	9-8	3.9	9-6	87	H
3.9	028	11-7	16	2.9	8-5	30	4.0	9-8	18	3.9	9-5	3.6	9-2	68	L
3.9	029	10-10	22	3.6	9-1	35	4.2	9-10	30	4.0	9-8	3.9	9-6	85	H
3.9	030	9-4	27	4.3	10-0	38	4.5	10-3	28	5.0	10-10	4.6	10-4	100	V-H
3.9	031	10-10	25	4.1	9-9	40	4.6	10-4	23	4.4	10-1	4.4	10-1	100	V-H
3.9	032	12-3	38	5.8	11-8	59	6.9	12-8	40	6.4	12-2	6.4	12-2	68	H
3.9	033	10-2	13	2.8	8-3	7	3.1	8-7	11	3.5	9-0	3.1	8-7	55	L
3.9	034	11-8	16	2.9	8-5	26	3.8	9-4	16	3.8	9-4	3.5	9-0	62	L
3.9	035	9-9	27	4.3	10-0	40	4.6	10-4	22	4.2	9-10	4.4	10-1	90	H
3.9	036	9-6	36	5.4	11-2	40	4.6	10-4	22	4.2	9-10	4.7	10-5	88	H
3.9	037	13-1	13	2.8	8-3	22	3.7	9-3	16	3.8	9-4	3.4	8-11	56	V-L
3.9	038	10-10	20	3.4	8-10	30	4.0	9-8	15	3.7	9-3	3.7	9-3	86	H
3.9	039	11-4	19	3.3	8-9	23	3.7	9-3	17	3.8	9-4	4.6	9-1	68	L
3.9	040	11-0	15	2.9	8-5	22	3.7	9-3	19	3.9	9-5	3.5	9-0	56	V-L

RS=Raw Score; GS = Grade Score; AS = Age Score

R = Rating: H = High; L = Low; VH = Very high; VL = Very low

APPENDIX C (cont'd)

RESULTS OF GATES READING SURVEY TESTS

Gr.	No. of Pupil	Age	Speed			Comp'n			Vocabulary			Average		Accur'y	
			RS	GS	AS	RS	GS	AS	RS	GS	AS	GS	AS	%	R
3.9	041	11-8				8	3.2	8-8	13	3.6	9-1	3.3	8-7		
3.9	042	11-4	9	2.4	7-9	10	3.3	8-9	18	3.9	9-0	3.2	8-11	30	V-L
4.9	043	10-0	14	2.8	8-4	19	3.3	9-1	19	3.9	9-5	3.4	8-11	81	L
4.9	044	10-5	6	2.1	7-5	13	3.3	8-9	7	3.1	8-7	2.8	8-3	75	V-L
4.9	045	11-2	20	4.5	10-3	30	4.0	9-8	17	3.8	9-4	4.1	9-9	90	M
4.9	046	11-1	18	3.1	8-7	21	3.7	9-3	18	5.0	10-10	3.9	9-3	89	V-L
4.9	047	10-6	8	2.3	7-8	16	3.4	8-10	9	3.3	8-9	3.0	3-5	80	L
4.9	048	12-0	10	2.5	7-10	18	3.5	9-0	12	3.5	9-0	3.2	8-7	71	V-L
4.9	049	11-8	20	3.4	8-10	16	3.4	8-10	12	4.2	9-10	3.7	9-3	83	L
4.9	050	11-11	29	4.5	10-3	44	4.0	10-10	29	5.2	11-0	1.9	10-9	53	L
4.9	051	11-7	20	3.4	8-10	39	4.5	10-3	22	4.3	9-10	1.0	9-3	21	H
4.9	052	11-9	37	5.6	11-5	14	5.0	10-10	30	3.4	11-1	5.3	11-	11	L
4.9	053	11-7	25	4.1	9-9	31	1.0	9-8	19	3.9	9-5	1.0	9-3	100	V-H
4.9	054	13-11	31	4.7	10-5	51	5.7	11-6	34	5.0	11-3	5.4	11-3	95	V-H
4.9	055	12-2	26	4.2	9-10	15	5.0	10-10	27	4.0	10-	1.1	10-5	87	L
4.9	056	11-6	32	3.6	9-1	31	4.0	9-3	21	4.1	9-9	3.9	9-3	11	V-L
4.9	057	11-6	33	5.4	11-2	47	5.2	11-0	23	4.8	10-7	5.1	10-11	9	M
4.9	058	12-4				30	7.0	12-9	46	7.1	13-1	7.2	13-7		
4.9	059	10-10	34	5.0	10-10	53	5.8	11-3	35	6.0	11-10	5.3	11-2	91	M
4.9	060	10-11	19	3.3	8-9	40	9-0	9-0	22	4.2	9-10	3.0	9-5	73	V-L
4.9	061	11-5	15	2.9	5-5	28	3.9	9-5	19	3.9	9-5	3.8	9-1	58	V-I
4.9	062	12-6	16	2.9	8-5	27	3.9	9-5	21	4.1	9-9	3.8	9-2	91	H
4.9	063	11-8	21	3.5	9-0	27	3.9	9-5	24	4.5	10-3	4.0	9-7	51	L
4.9	064	10-3	10	2.5	7-10	12	3.3	8-9	10	3.4	8-10	3.1	8-3	43	V-L
4.9	065	11-4	21	2.1	7-5	10	3.3	8-9	11	3.5	9-0	3.0	8-5	13	V-L
4.9	066	10-1	7	2.2	7-6	11	3.3	8-9	14	3.7	9-3	3.1	8-0	17	V-L
4.9	067	11-3	7	2.2	7-3	1	9	8-5	6	3.1	3-7	1.7	8-1	19	V-I
4.9	068	11-2	13	2.8	8-3	4	9	9-5	3	2.8	8-3	2.8	8-4	50	V-L
4.9	069	9-8	20	3.4	8-10	30	3.3	9-1	23	4.2	9-10	3.7	9-3	74	V-L
4.9	070	12-1	8	3.2	8-8	7	3.1	8-7	8	3.2	8-8	3.2	8-8	37	V-1
4.9	071	10-10	5	2.0	7-3	11	3.3	8-9	7	3.1	8-7	2.8	8-2	33	V-L
5.9	072	12-5	9	2.4	7-9	21	3.6	9-1	9	3.3	8-9	3.1	8-3	52	V-L
5.9	073	11-9	25	4.1	9-9	28	3.9	9-5	26	4.8	10-7	4.3	9-11	93	M
5.9	074	13-1	18	3.1	8-7	29	4.0	9-8	18	3.9	9-5	3.7	9-3	88	V-L
5.9	075	11-6	28	6.2	12-0	33	4.1	9-9	21	4.1	9-9	4.8	10-5	85	V-I
5.9	076	11-6	16	2.9	8-5	33	4.1	9-9	18	3.9	9-5	3.6	9-2	84	V-L
5.9	077	12-6	9	2.4	7-9	15	3.4	8-10	18	3.9	9-5	3.2	8-8	58	V-L
5.9	078	12-11	34	5.0	10-10	44	5.0	10-10	32	5.6	11-5	5.2	11-3	97	M
5.9	079	13-4	19	3.3	8-9	33	4.1	9-9	24	4.5	10-3	4.0	9-7	100	V-H
5.9	080	11-1	35	5.2	11-0	46	5.1	10-11	26	4.8	10-7	5.0	10-10	89	L

APPENDIX C (cont'd)

RESULTS OF GATES READING SURVEY TESTS

No. of Gr. Pupil	Age	Speed			Comp'n			Vocabulary			Average		Accur'y		
		RS	GS	AS	RS	GS	AS	RS	GS	AS	GS	AS	%	R	
5.9	081	12-8	36	5.4	11-2	41	4.7	10-5	23	4.4	10-1	4.8	10-7	92	L
5.9	082	11-10	29	4.5	10-3	35	4.2	9-10	25	4.7	10-5	4.5	10-2	97	M
5.9	083	14-4	26	4.2	9-10	55	6.2	12-0	26	4.8	10-7	5.1	10-10	94	M
5.9	084	13-3	43	6.7	12-5	59	6.9	12-8	43	6.6	12-4	6.7	12-10	88	L
5.9	085	13-5	29	4.5	10-3	58	6.7	12-5	35	6.0	11-10	5.7	11-6	91	L
5.9	086	13-7	41	6.3	12-1	46	5.1	10-11	28	5.0	10-10	5.5	11-3	100	V-H
5.9	087	13-11	26	4.2	9-10	48	5.3	11-1	30	5.4	11-2	5.0	10-8	92	L
5.9	088	12-2	35	5.2	11-0	57	6.5	12-3	31	5.5	11-4	5.7	11-6	97	M
5.9	089	13-1	30	4.3	10-4	56	6.4	12-2	32	5.6	11-5	5.5	11-4	95	M
5.9	090	13-5	30	4.6	10-4	33	4.1	9-9	21	4.1	9-9	4.3	9-11	95	M
5.9	091	11-8	43	6.7	12-5	51	5.7	11-3	31	5.5	11-4	6.0	11-9	97	M
5.9	092	11-4	20	3.4	8-10	28	3.9	9-5	27	4.9	10-8	4.1	9-8	86	V-L
5.9	093	11-4	19	3.3	8-9	30	4.0	9-8	23	4.4	10-1	3.9	9-6	82	V-L
5.9	094	14-2	15	2.9	8-5	23	3.7	9-3	11	3.5	9-0	3.4	8-11	63	V-L
5.9	095	13-1	29	4.5	10-3	24	3.7	9-3	20	4.0	9-8	4.1	9-9	80	V-L
5.9	096	10-5	25	4.1	9-9	42	4.8	10-7	32	5.6	11-5	4.8	10-7	96	M
5.9	097	12-6	25	4.1	9-9	32	4.1	9-9	23	4.4	10-1	4.2	9-10	93	M
5.9	098	12-1	14	2.8	8-4	35	4.2	9-10	16	3.8	9-4	3.6	9-2	71	V-L
5.9	099	12-8	45	6.9	12-3	58	3.7	12-5	28	5.0	10-10	6.2	12-0	100	V-H
5.9	100	13-2	16	2.9	8-5	32	4.1	9-9	25	4.7	10-5	3.9	9-3	98	V-H
5.9	101	11-2	23	3.8	9-4	33	4.1	9-9	21	4.1	9-8	4.0	9-7	96	M
5.9	102	11-10	40	6.2	12-0	44	5.0	10-10	37	6.2	12-0	5.6	11-7	90	L
5.9	103	10-1	34	5.0	10-10	42	4.8	10-7	25	4.7	10-5	4.8	10-7	94	M
5.9	104	12-2	35	5.2	11-0	47	5.2	11-0	30	5.4	11-2	5.3	11-1	97	M
5.9	105	14-0	41	6.3	12-1	52	5.8	11-8	34	5.9	11-8	6.0	11-10	100	V-H
5.9	103	12-4	15	2.9	8-5	16	2.9	8-5	13	3.6	9-1	3.1	8-8	52	V-L
5.9	107	15-0	27	4.3	10-0	29	4.0	9-8	25	4.7	10-5	4.2	9-9	82	V-L
5.9	108	13-2	29	4.5	10-3	36	4.3	10-0	28	5.0	10-10	4.6	10-8	97	M
5.9	109	11-3	20	3.4	8-10	22	3.7	9-3	19	4.1	9-9	3.7	9-3	69	V-L
5.9	110	12-4	25	4.1	9-9	36	4.3	10-0	21	4.1	9-9	4.2	9-10	79	V-L
5.9	111	10-9	25	4.1	9-9	31	4.0	9-8	24	4.5	10-3	4.2	9-11	100	V-H
5.9	112	10-3	27	4.3	10-0	22	3.7	9-3	27	4.9	10-8	4.3	10-0	88	L
5.9	113	13-3	29	4.5	10-3	25	3.8	9-4	22	4.2	9-10	4.2	9-10	70	V-L
5.9	114	10-8	22	3.6	9-1	30	4.0	9-8	16	3.8	9-4	3.8	9-4	88	L
5.9	115	11-5	33	4.8	10-8	37	4.4	10-1	23	4.4	10-1	4.6	10-3	97	M
6.9	116	13-2	13	3.4	8-10	42	4.8	10-7	25	4.7	10-5	4.3	9-11	93	L
6.9	117	12-7	16	3.8	9-4	27	3.9	9-5	19	3.9	9-5	3.9	9-5	88	V-L
6.9	118	13-2	35	7.7	13-5	57	6.5	12-3	30	5.4	11-2	6.5	12-3	100	V-H
6.9	119	12-5	26	5.7	11-6	68	7.8	13-7	39	6.4	12-2	6.6	12-5	94	L
6.9	120	9-9	15	3.6	9-1	20	3.6	9-1	28	5.0	10-10	4.1	9-8	60	V-L

APPENDIX C (cont'd)

RESULTS OF GATES READING SURVEY TESTS

Gr.	No. of Pupil	Age	Speed			Comp'n			Vocabulary			Average		Accur'y	
			RS	GS	AS	RS	GS	AS	RS	GS	AS	GS	AS	%	R
6.9	121	13-11	23	5.0	10-10	52	5.8	11-8	34	5.9	11-8	5.6	11-5	96	M
6.9	122	12-9	20	4.5	10-3	54	6.1	11-11	35	6.0	11-10	5.5	11-4	100	V-H
6.9	123	13-1	18	4.1	9-9	34	4.2	9-10	28	5.0	10-10	4.4	10-2	100	V-H
6.9	124	13-10	28	6.2	12-0	30	4.0	9-8	35	6.0	11-10	5.4	11-2	100	V-H
6.9	125	13-8	20	4.5	10-3	46	5.1	10-11	26	4.8	10-7	4.8	10-7	83	V-L
6.9	126	15-11	20	4.5	10-3	63	7.4	13-1	40	6.4	12-2	3.1	11-2	95	L
3.9	127	12-7	15	3.6	9-1	47	5.2	11-0	33	5.7	11-6	4.8	10-6	83	V-L
6.9	128	14-5	33	7.4	13-1	49	5.5	11-4	37	6.2	12-0	6.4	12-2	97	M
3.9	129	14-8	15	3.6	9-1	21	3.6	9-1	22	4.2	9-10	3.8	9-4	88	V-L
6.9	130	14-10	15	3.6	9-1	37	3.9	9-5	29	5.2	11-0	4.2	9-10	94	L
6.9	131	13-9	11	3.0	8-3	10	3.3	8-9	23	4.4	10-1	3.6	9-1	92	L
6.9	132	13-1	15	3.6	9-1	28	3.9	9-5	27	4.9	10-8	4.1	9-9	94	L
6.9	133	14-1	27	6.0	11-10	51	5.7	11-6	30	5.4	11-3	5.7	11-6	88	L
6.9	134	15-8	10	2.9	8-5	15	3.1	8-10	16	3.8	9-4	3.4	8-10	83	V-L
6.9	135	12-2	18	4.1	9-9	33	4.1	9-9	33	5.7	11-6	4.6	10-0	100	V-H
6.9	136	13-8	29	3.5	13-1	51	6.1	11-11	39	8.4	12-2	6.3	12-9	91	L
6.9	137	13-1	9	2.7	8-1	19	3.6	9-1	16	3.8	9-4	3.4	8-10	84	V-L
3.9	138	13-8	19	4.3	10-0	43	4.9	10-8	32	5.6	11-5	4.9	10-8	95	L
6.9	139	12-9	25	1.1	9-9	39	4.5	10-3				4.3	10-0	86	V-L
6.9	140	12-10	26	5.7	11-6	31	4.0	9-8	32	5.3	11-5	5.1	10-10	82	V-L
6.9	141	14-11	7	1.8	7-1	15	3.1	8-10	24	4.5	10-3	3.2	8-9	77	V-L
6.9	142	14-7	24	5.3	11-0	39	4.5	10-3	24	4.5	10-3	4.7	10-10	100	V-H
7.9	143	14-3	30	6.7	12-5	66	8.0	13-9	41	8.5	12-3	7.1	12-10	100	V-H
7.9	144	14-3	24	5.2	11-0	59	6.9	12-8	37	6.2	12-0	6.1	11-11	92	V-L
7.9	145	15-2	33	7.4	13-1	60	7.0	12-9	33	5.7	11-6	6.7	12-5	97	M
7.9	146	13-5	40	8.7	14-5	61	7.2	12-11	40	8.4	12-2	7.4	13-2	94	L
7.9	147	14-10	30	6.7	12-5	51	5.7	11-6	49	7.6	13-4	6.7	12-5	91	V-L
7.9	148	14-11	33	7.4	13-1	51	5.7	11-6	39	8.4	12-2	6.5	12-3	94	L
7.9	149	14-1	29	6.5	12-3	49	5.5	11-4	30	5.4	11-2	5.8	11-7	97	M
7.9	150	14-1	36	7.8	13-7	56	6.4	12-2	32	5.6	11-5	6.6	12-5	92	V-L
7.9	151	13-9	30	6.7	12-5	57	6.5	12-3	44	6.7	12-5	6.6	12-4	98	H
7.9	152	13-6	34	7.4	13-1	66	7.8	13-7	44	6.7	12-5	7.3	13-0	94	L
7.9	153	15-5	23	5.0	10-10	58	6.7	12-5	39	6.4	12-2	6.0	11-10	88	V-L
7.9	154	14-4	15	3.6	9-1	43	4.9	10-8	40	6.4	12-2	5.0	10-8	94	L
7.9	155	13-7				49	5.5	11-4	28	5.0	10-10	5.3	11-1		
7.9	156	14-4	24	5.2	11-0	49	5.5	11-4	29	5.2	11-0	5.3	11-1	92	V-L
7.9	157	14-9	30	6.7	12-5	63	7.4	13-1	41	6.5	12-3	6.9	12-7	100	V-H
7.9	158	16-2	18	4.1	9-9	11	3.3	8-9	18	3.9	9-5	3.8	9-4	88	V-L
7.9	159	14-1	20	4.5	10-3	43	4.9	10-8	29	5.2	11-0	4.9	10-8	95	L
7.9	160	15-1	28	6.2	12-0	49	5.5	11-4	28	5.0	10-10	5.6	11-5	94	L

APPENDIX C (cont'd)

RESULTS OF GATES READING SURVEY TESTS

Gr.	No. of Pupil	Age	Soeed			Comp'n			Vocabulary			Average		Accur'y	
			RS	GS	AS	RS	GS	AS	RS	GS	AS	GS	AS	%	R
7.9	161	12-11	33	7.4	13-1	51	5.7	11-6	44	6.7	12-5	6.6	12-4	100	V-H
7.9	162	15-2	39	8.5	14-3	53	6.0	11-10	36	6.1	11-11	6.9	12-8	88	V-L
7.9	163	15-7	21	4.6	10-4	49	5.5	11-4	30	5.4	11-2	5.2	10-11	90	V-L
7.9	164	18-5	30	6.7	12-5	50	5.6	11-5	33	5.7	11-6	6.0	11-9	88	V-L
7.9	165	14-10	17	4.0	9-8	49	5.5	11-4	38	6.3	12-1	5.3	11-0	85	V-L
7.9	166	15-0	26	5.7	11-6	45	5.0	10-10	35	6.0	11-10	5.6	11-5	96	L
7.9	167	15-7				69	8.5	14-3	57	8.8	14-7	8.7	14-5		
7.9	168	14-3	16	3.8	9-4	43	4.9	10-8	22	4.2	9-10	4.3	9-11	94	L
7.9	169	15-2	11	3.0	8-6	28	3.9	9-5	18	3.9	9-5	4.6	9-1	85	V-L
8.9	170	15-8	32	7.2	12-11	67	8.0	13-9	43	7.0	12-9	7.4	13-2	100	V-H
8.9	171	15-10	31	7.0	12-9	62	7.3	13-0	34	5.9	11-8	6.7	12-5	100	V-H
8.9	172	13-10	33	7.4	13-1	48	5.3	11-1	23	5.0	10-10	5.9	11-6	100	V-H
8.9	173	14-10	18	4.1	9-9	47	5.2	11-0	39	6.4	12-2	5.2	11-0	88	V-L
8.9	174	14-4	20	4.5	10-3	41	4.7	10-5	34	5.9	11-9	5.0	10-9	90	V-L
8.9	175	14-0	22	4.8	10-7	60	7.0	13-9	43	3.6	12-4	6.1	11-11	81	V-L
8.9	176	14-11	21	4.3	10-4	43	4.9	10-8	31	5.5	11-4	5.0	10-9	84	V-L
8.9	177	15-3	20	4.5	10-3	42	4.8	10-7	31	5.5	11-4	4.9	10-9	100	V-H
8.9	178	15-3	33	8.2	13-11	77	9.7	15-5	54	8.5	14-3	8.8	14-10	100	V-H
8.9	179	16-5	35	7.7	13-5	66	7.8	13-7	50	7.8	13-7	7.8	13-3	93	V-L
8.9	180	15-5	12	3.2	8-8	17	3.5	9-0	39	5.2	11-0	4.0	9-7	93	V-L
8.9	181	15-9	28	6.2	12-0	39	4.5	10-3	41	3.5	12-3	5.7	11-6	100	V-H
8.9	182	15-1	28	6.2	12-0	50	5.6	11-5	51	8.0	13-9	6.6	12-5	94	L
8.9	183	14-4	50	11.6	17-3	87	8.0	13-9	53	8.4	14-1	9.3	15-0	98	H
8.9	184	14-8	31	7.0	12-9	45	5.0	10-10	32	5.6	11-5	5.9	11-8	88	V-L
8.9	185	15-11	33	7.4	13-1	64	7.5	13-3	39	3.3	12-1	7.1	12-10	97	M
8.9	186	15-2	23	5.0	10-10	60	7.0	12-9	42	3.5	12-3	6.2	11-11	92	V-L
8.9	187	15-0	25	5.5	11-4	60	7.0	12-9	40	6.4	12-2	6.3	12-1	100	V-H
8.9	188	15-3	37	8.0	13-9	73	9.0	14-9	61	9.3	15-0	8.8	14-10	100	V-H
8.9	189	16-10	24	5.2	11-0	48	5.3	11-1	43	6.6	12-4	5.7	11-6	92	V-L
8.9	190	14-5	29	6.5	12-3	58	6.7	12-5	30	5.4	11-2	6.2	11-11	100	V-H
8.9	191	15-8	31	7.0	12-9	58	6.7	12-5	32	5.6	11-5	6.4	12-2	100	V-H
8.9	192	15-0	19	4.3	10-0	42	4.8	10-7	22	4.2	9-10	4.4	10-2	79	V-L
8.9	193	15-3	38	8.2	13-11	61	7.2	12-11	51	8.0	13-9	7.8	13-6	95	L
8.9	194	15-6	20	4.5	10-3	47	5.2	11-0	38	6.3	12-1	5.3	11-1	95	L

APPENDIX D.

BIBLIOGRAPHY OF INDIAN EDUCATION.

The United States and Canada.

Books and Pamphlets

Blauch, Lloyd E., Educational Service for Indians.
Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office. 1939.
Pp. xii + 137. For the Advisory Committee on Education.

Bronson, Ruth Muskrat. Indians are People Too. Pp. 98-106, 159-160.
New York: Friendship Press. 1944.

Cohen, Felix S. Handbook of Federal Indian Law. (U.S.)
Chapter XII, Section 2 - "Education".

Cowan, Philip A., Survey of Indian Schools. State of New York, Albany.
State Department of Education, Division of Research. 1940.

Deloria, Ella. Speaking of Indians. Chapter XII - "The New Education."
New York: Friendship Press. 1944.

Eastman, Elaine Goodale. Pratt, The Red Man's Moses.
Norman: University of Oklahoma Press. 1935.
Pp. 235.

Everett, Samuel E., ed. The Community School.
Chapter VI "Developing Community Living Among the
Indians." New York: D. Appleton Co. 1938.

Joblin, E.E.M. Bibliographies for Teachers. No. III - North American
Indians. (a) Indian Education in Canada and the U.S.
(b) References on Indian Life for School Use. The Department
of Educational Research, Ontario College of Education,
University of Toronto, Educational Research Series No. 15.
1947. Mimeographed. Pp. 29.

Jones, Thomas Jesse, et al. The Navajo Indian Problem.
Chapter IV "Navajo Education."
New York: Phelps-Stokes Fund. 1939.

Lindquist, G.E.E. The Red Man in the United States.
New York: Geo. H. Doran Co. 1923.
Portions thereof.

The Indian in American Life.
New York: Friendship Press. 1944.
Portions thereof.

Loram, C.T., and McIlwraith, T.F. The North American Indian Today.
Part VIII "The Problem of Education."
Toronto: University of Toronto Press. 1943.

Merriam, Lewis and Hinman, George W.
Facing the Future in Indian Missions.
Pp. 80-98, 170-185.
New York: Council of Women for Home Missions and
Missionary Education Movement. 1932.

Miller, J.C. National Government and Education in Federated Democracies
- Canada. Chapter VIII "Education of Indians."
Pp. 272-293. Philadelphia: Miller. 1940.

APPENDIX D (cont'd)
BIBLIOGRAPHY OF INDIAN EDUCATION

Taylor, Mary Garland. Trails of Friendship with American Indians.
Pp. 70-81. New York: Friendship Press. 1944.
United Church of Canada. Board of Home Missions and Women's Missionary
Society. Report of Commission on Indian Education. 1935.
Mimeoographed. Pp. 35.

Theses.

For the United States, - Listed in
Bibliography of Research Studies in Education.
Washington, D.C., United States Department of the
Interior. Office of Education.
For Canada, - listed in
A Bibliography of Canadian Education.
Toronto: Department of Educational Research,
University of Toronto. 1938.

Periodicals.

Indian Education. A fortnightly Field Letter of the Education Division,
Office of Indian Affairs. Chicago, Illinois.
Indians at Work. A News Sheet for the Indians and the Indian Service.
Washington: Office of Indian Affairs. Monthly.
The Education Index. Dorothy Ross Carpenter, ed.
New York. The H.W. Wilson Company.
Lists all articles included in leading educational
magazines and periodicals.
Annual Report. Department of Mines and Resources, Indian Affairs
Branch, Ottawa.

APPENDIX E.

SELECTED REFERENCE LIST FOR AUDIO-VISUAL AIDS

(1) BOOKS.

1. Dent, Ellsworth C., - The Audio-Visual Handbook.
Chicago: Society for Visual Education Inc.,
Pp. 227. 1942.
2. Brunstetter, M.R., - How to Use the Educational Sound Film.
Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
Pp. xvi+174. 1937.
3. McKown, H.C. and Roberts, A.B., - Audio-Visual Aids to Instruction.
New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co.
Pp. xiv+385. 1940.
4. McDonald, Gerald D., - Educational Motion Pictures and Libraries
Chicago: American Library Association.
Pp. xii+184. 1942.
5. American Council on Education Studies, 744 Jackson Place, Washington,
Motion Pictures in a Modern Curriculum. 1941.
Projecting Motion Pictures in the Classroom.
A School Uses Motion Pictures. 1940
The Motion Picture in Education. 1937
Teaching with Motion Pictures. 1937
6. Hoban, C.F., Hoban, C.F.Jr., and Zisman, S.B., -
Visualizing the Curriculum.
New York: The Cordon Company.
Pp. vii+300. 1937.

(2) PAMPHLETS

7. Bell Telephone Company of Canada; Publicity Dept., Toronto.
Catalogue of free films; and suggestions.
8. Adams, Walter, - "Can Our Schools Teach the GI Way?"
A reprint from "Better Homes and Gardens."
Available from General Films Ltd., Toronto.
9. Dominion Bureau of Statistics, Education Statistics Branch, Ottawa.
"The Use of Films and Slides in Canadian Schools"
1937. 25¢
"The Use of Radios and Phonographs in the Schools"
1937. 25¢
"Assistance to Schools from Museums and Art
Galleries" 1938. 15¢
10. Dendy-Geppert Co.
5235 Ravenswood Avenue,
Chicago, Illinois, - "A Handbook of Visual Teaching Aids"
1941. 10¢

(3) PERIODICALS.

11. "National Film Board News" - monthly.
National Film Board News, Distribution Dept., Ottawa.
12. "Educational Film Catalogue" - monthly.
H.W.Wilson Co., New York.
13. "The Educational Screen" - monthly.
64 East Lake St., Chicago, Ill. Canadian price, \$2.50
14. "Film News" -- monthly June to September.
American Film Centre, 45 Rockefeller Plaza, New York.
\$2.00

(4) SOURCES OF MATERIALS.

15. Ontario Department of Education, Parliament Buildings, Toronto.
Catalogue of Silent and Sound Films.
16. National Film Board, Ottawa; or 86 Bloor St. West, Toronto.
Catalogue of Films and Filmstrips; other pamphlets. Also
distributed by London Public Library and Art Museum.
17. Associated Screen News Ltd., 100 Adelaide St. West, Toronto.
Catalogues of films and other materials, including
pamphlet 'Visual Aids in Education'.
18. Sovereign Film Distributors, 277 Victoria St. West, Toronto.
Catalogues.
19. General Films Ltd., 156 King St. West, Toronto. Catalogues.
20. Ryerson Film Service, 299 Queen St. West, Toronto. Catalogues.
21. The Overseas League Canadian Film Library,
1312 Sherbrooke St. West, Montreal, P.Q. Catalogue.

(5) OTHER ADDRESSES OF INTEREST

22. The Canadian Council of Education for Citizenship,
330 Gilmour St., Ottawa, Ontario.
23. The Canadian Association for Adult Education,
198 College St., Toronto, Ontario.
24. Supervisor of Educational Broadcasts of the Canadian Broadcasting
Company, 55 York St., Toronto.
"Young Canada Listens". American School of the Air.
Teachers' Manual.
25. Society for Visual Education Inc., 100 East Ohio St., Chicago.
Kodachrome Library, Catalogue.
26. Eastman Kodak Company, Teaching Films Division, Rochester, N.Y.
"Eastman Classroom Films"
Other commercial firms such as DeVry, Victor, Bell and Howell, and
Ampro, have useful literature as well. Information may be obtained also
from the Library of the Ontario College of Education.

